

Fifty Years of Women's Education in India

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Preface

Fifty years is a very small period in the life of a society with deeply entrenched norms and social structures of several thousands of years but perhaps a reasonable period to assess the role of planned development, the strategies employed and the processes unleashed to educate and empower the masses and to provide the back up for scientific and technological development, for modernization of agriculture, for industrial growth, for a role in the information revolution and above all to be measured on the yardstick of human development. We need to be conscious of the fact that even today we are at the 115th rank on Human Development Index (HDI), having moved up 13 notches since the last year's position of 128 but yet we have long way to go. We are still at the bottom of the middle human development category nations and way below our neighbour Sri Lanka that ranks 81. We are perhaps a little ahead of Pakistan with an HDI rank of 128, Bangladesh four places lower and Nepal and Bhutan ranked 129 and 130 respectively. Norway leads the 162 countries that have been ranked in the 12th UNDP human Development Report 2001, followed by Australia and Canada, Sierra Leone at the bottom most of the ladder. The HDI is a composite measure of human well being based on literacy levels, life expectancy, gender disparities and incomes. Coding, India has the seventh largest number of scientists and engineers, adult literacy is significantly poor compared to Sri Lanka and even Maldives in our region. At 2001 census, only 65.4% Indians aged 7+ were found to be literate, 75.9% males and 54.2% females, leaving a yawning male female gap of 21.7 percentage points. And, to cap it all, India has only 5.1 mean years of schooling. Japan had ten years of per capita education in 1950. Among the 296 million illiterates 186 million (64%) are female. However, it is heartening to note that female literacy and education have progressed faster than their male counterparts during the last decades with urban gender gaps closing. Rural female literacy has also progressed faster than that for rural males but the rural urban gap among women themselves is very large.

India inherited a very small system of education comprising a total of 218,165 educational institutions in 1947 with an enrolment of less than 18 millions. Girls formed 23.4% of the students enrolled, 26.7% at the primary stage, 18% at the middle stage, 12.8% in high schools, 10.4% in universities and colleges of general education and 6.6% in colleges of professional education. Female literacy was 6% compared to 23% for males (Census 1941). Besides the male female gaps, the system was marked by sharp regional and inter group disparities which continue. Secondary and higher education was limited to urban, elite middle class women and thus remains true even today. Presently, India has the second largest educational system in the world next to China with more than a million formal and non formal educational institutions with an enrolment of 191.63 million out of whom 80.54 million (42%) are girls. Further, girls form 44% of the 113.61 million students at the primary stage (Classes I-V), 40.2% of the 42.01 million enrolled at the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII), 39% of the 28.21 million at the secondary/higher secondary stage (Classes IX-XII) and, 40% of the 7.73 million students enrolled in institutions of higher learning (MHRD, 2000-2001).

The present study reviews the development of education of girls and women in India since 1947 with reference to the policy initiatives and planning and management strategies adopted to remove their educational and social backwardness of ages. A valiant bid was made to provide equality as a fundamental right under the Constitution of India to all citizens prohibiting discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth and also authorizing the State to make any special provision for women and children and the socially and educationally backward classes or citizens. Planned socio economic development was expected to be an instrument for removal of steep inequalities and disparities and for creating conditions for a reasonable quality of life through the provision of education, health and employment opportunities and allied services based on the twin planks of growth and equity. Further, India is committed to major international conventions on the rights of all humans, men, women and children.

Much has happened to raise the educational and social situation of women at the level of policy and rhetoric but perhaps more effort is needed to translate intentions into concrete action to remove the policy performance gaps and the distance between the textual and the contextual position of women. There has been expansion of educational facilities at all levels of education and girls have benefited, especially the urban girls. The accepted policy of undifferentiated curricula and reorientation of the content and process of education has been done to make it gender sensitive and a strong vehicle of women's equality and

empowerment The Post NPE / Jomuen efforts in the area of girls' education appear to be giving positive results , a major yardstick being sharp increase in female literacy levels and greater retention and transition of girls to successive higher levels of education

The study report is organized in six sections Chapter I provides the conceptual framework for education of girls and women in independent India Chapter II provides a detailed analysis of development of women's education in India since 1947 against a brief historical backdrop of evolution of female education in pre independent India ,especially during the colonial rule Chapter III looks at the achievements and the shortfalls in female education during the last five decades in terms of female literacy and educational participation of women and girls – the quantitative dimension Chapter IV brings out the more qualitative aspects of bringing about women's empowerment and gender equality through the curriculum and its transaction India took and early lead in this area Chapter V maps out the researches on education of girls as also some action/ research projects in this area Chapter VI gives a summary of findings, issues that remain to be addressed and the proposed future thrusts

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It is hoped that the study would be found useful by colleagues across the country by policy makers and planners by teachers and teacher educators and young researchers

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Chapter I

The Conceptual Framework

Study of women's education offers a fascinating panorama India has an early and rich tradition of education of women (nearly 5000 years old) From a high point during the Vedic period, the decline began with the rise of Brahmanical forces which imposed restrictions on women's movement, denying them the right to education The rise of Buddhism and Jainism offered better status to women and the opportunity to receive religious and secular education Education of women virtually disappeared in medieval India and only with the introduction of modern education by the British in the nineteenth century, the possibilities of receiving education opened up, although largely due to private initiative till India's independence The aim of educating women was restricted to their better performance of family roles and this non economic aim of female education continued to dominate the thinking of the policy makers and planners even though theoretically all streams of education were open to women The Post War Development Plan categorically stated that all education which was good enough for boys is good for girls In independent India, several high powered committees and commissions on education pondered over the questions of increasing educational access on an equitable basis to all groups of population, constantly improving its quality and relevance according to the requirements of the times The debate on separate versus common curricula for both sex was settled in favour of undifferentiated curricula From equality of opportunity to education for women's equality was the sea change experienced by the Nation between the first National Policy of Education (1968) to the National Policy on Education 1986 Since then, there has been no looking back and female education has grown at a faster pace than the males especially during the 1990s In this study we look briefly at the historical antecedents of female education and chart out the policy initiatives and the progress made in this area in the last five decades, as also the critical issues that remain to be addressed for girls and women to come into their own as equal partners in building a modern democratic, secular India

Education of girls and women has transited from extreme opposition to reluctant acquiescence to total acceptance by the end of the last century In 1901, not even one (0.6%) women could read and write, in 2001, more than half are literate in a population of one billion At the time of independence girls formed less than a quarter of the students enrolled in formal institutions and now girls form 44% of the students at the primary stage, 40% at the middle stage, 39% at the secondary stage and 40% of the students in higher education Education of girls and women has always been high on the national agenda and since its inception, development planning paid special attention to the issues concerning girls and women The most remarkable period of concerted action and a new conceptualization was after the end of the UN Development Decade when the National Policy on Education 1986 committed the entire educational system to work for women's equality and empowerment The 1990s were special for more than one reason There was the Jomtien Declaration making Education for All not only a national responsibility but an area of international cooperation and concern coterminous with the SAARC Decade of the Girl Child (1991 – 2000)

India took the road to planned development keeping in view the vast regional and inter group disparities at the time of Independence It was considered necessary to take up national initiatives for planned, socio economic development for removing the distortions of the past through a conscious policy of state interventions into the highly iniquitous social stratification structures Protective discrimination was built into the Constitution through explicit sub clauses of Articles related to Equality Education of girls and women is an area of national concern both as a development imperative and as a human right In the last decade, the approach to the education of girls and women shows a marked shift Investment in female education is now being seen as a development imperative rather than a plain moral commitment, thus, lifting it from the plane of pure ethics to pure economics The planners and the policy makers are convinced that the payoffs of educating women are many, among them, higher age at marriage, a smaller family size, lower infant and child mortality, better educational and health inputs into the quality of life of the family/household, and higher productivity, among others

During the first five year plan (1950-51) noted with great concern the neglect of women's education as girls constituted only 28 % at the primary, 16 at the middle stage, 13 % at the high / higher secondary stage and only 10 % in higher education. The system of education in terms of institutions was very small. It is heartening to note that now form 44 % at the primary , 41 % at the middle , 38 % at the high / higher secondary stage and 39 % in higher education. Analysis shows that the rate of growth of female education has been higher than that for boys in every successive Plan understandably because of the very small base of female education at the time of independence. Till the Fifth Five Year Plan the absolute increase was more for boys than for girls. After the Sixth and Seventh Plan the absolute increase levelled off for boys and girls. During the Eighth and part of the Ninth Plan (1990-91 to 1998-99) the absolute increase is higher for girls than for boys. This can perhaps be attributed to the very strong focus on the education of the girls child in the frame work of the National Policy of Education (NPE) 1986 and revised in 1992 , Jomtien effect, EFA programmes and the SAARC Decade of the Girl Child.

Although education of girls and women is increasingly being seen both as a development imperative and as a human right, India's performance on Human Development is not very heartening. India's performance on the Human Development is not very encouraging being placed at the 128th rank (value 0.563) on Human Development Index (HDI) , 108th rank on Gender Development Index (Human Development Report, 2000) and 95th rank on the Gender Empowerment Measure (Human Development Report, 1999), let alone the fact of missing millions among the female half of the population between each census. While Japan had 10 years of per capita education in 1950, in India, the mean years of schooling are 2.4 years for the population as a whole , the average years per capita being 3.5 years for males and 1.2 years for females (Human Development in South Asia, 1998). The fact that 1997 NSSO figures have shown 62% Indians (age 6 +) as literate (the rate being 50% for females and 73% for males) needs to be interpreted along with the average years of schooling per capita. Closer home Sri Lanka reported 7.2 years as average schooling for their population, 8.0 years for males and 6.3 years for females and Maldives with an average of 4.5 years for the whole population and 5.1 years for males and 3.9 years for females (Ibid).

Education of girls has been an area of national concern since independence in India. Several policy measures have been taken to promote and strengthen the education of girls and women following recommendations of various Committees and Commissions and substantial progress has been made, and yet the gender gap continues to exist and widens with every successive higher level of education. Regional and group disparities are large. While the gender gaps are closing in the urban areas, the same continues to be wide in rural and remote areas.

India is known for its cultural diversity and plurality of language, ethnicity, religion that are in fact rooted in the interplay of its geography and the historical forces. In as much as India is a cultural cauldron where the different racial groups have mingled to produce a composite culture and a variety of complex social formations, rich diversity of topography, land formation, waterways, fauna and flora is immense and wide ranging - with the tallest / youngest mountains, the Himalayan range and the oldest Aravali ranges stretching into the sea, the tropical forests, the formidable deserts and the physically isolated island groups.

It is interesting to note that apart from the rural urban disparities being very sharp, there are intra rural disparities as between larger village settlements and small isolated habitations in remote areas. Besides, socio economic and political considerations, the geography- ecology- culture formations have historically determined the gender based division of labour and resources in each of the settings and thus impinge on the educational and social participation of girls and women. On the one hand is the urban elite middle class sections of population where girls are doing even better than the boys in secondary/ higher secondary examinations and gender discrimination is low and on the other hand are the poverty groups where being girls is an additional handicap, although even boys belonging to these groups of population also have very low participation and survival rates in education.

The inter play of the ecology and technology over several millennia have given rise to cultures which display a strong tendency to resist acculturation as regards social institutions of family, kinship, belief systems and gender roles while accepting several modern technologies and institutions in the economic and the political arenas. Needless to say, in India as elsewhere, the social stratification is not only on the

lines of gender and class but is faced very strongly with the very indigenous social institution of caste within every religious group (the nearest equivalent being the factor of race in the West)

The multi ethnic cultural fabric is equally interesting as within the same country, girls and women have different possibilities, depending on the status accorded to its women. For instance, Ladakhis are a gender egalitarian group who profess Buddhism but may not be free from gender stereotyping. Garhwal with a strong *Sharvite* presence and worshippers of *Durga*, have a women centred subsistence economy- with all able bodied males out in the plains for better economic prospects and where the joint family system and community cohesion is now threatened. Not all girls are sent to school and scattered habitations at times comprising four to twenty households defy all governmental effort to provide subsidized electricity, piped water, schools and health services. Nagaland, home to earlier inter warring tribes, continues to be plagued by the lethal underground movement that saps earnings of families raised through the sweat and labour of their women. Post primary schooling is a major bottleneck for girls and even primary schools give children very little. All development funds are heavy on paper, with very little to see on the ground. Meghalaya, another mountain state interests us for besides Lakshadweep, this is the only state where matriliney still prevails, having disappeared from the Malabars from where it entered the Lakshadweep Islands. Our Rajasthan desert region is part of the highly sexist north western plains which could be termed as the medieval tract culturally and where bulk of our poor, and the illiterate reside and where female infanticide, child marriage still prevail in defiance of the laws of the land. The Central tribal tracts where women are the fulcrum of the economy, girls are not decimated for they bring in bride price and are considered more useful than the boys who largely grow up to be idlers and addicts contributing only to the misery of the women and the children. But even here, as the development bag is normally brought in by the urban males, females are increasingly being devalued and are open to exploitation, and, formal education, howsoever worthless, is seen more of, a male prerogative, unless conscious intervention is done by the State and the NGO sector. Given a difficult geographic and climatic conditions that may restrain access to school far away- the absence of schools in small scattered settlements- valid for both boys and girls, the pattern of male and female participation in education differs. In spite of the presence of a school in the settlement, girls may not be attending school at the expected level.

We could state that the transportation difficulties caused by the geographic and the climatic conditions hinders school attendance of girls relatively more than that of boys and the absence of schools in small and scattered settlement units/ habitations hinders enrolment of girls likewise. The proposition is that the access of girls to educational institutions is in great part determined by the socio cultural system in the region and the position of women and girls in this system. The inter play of the socio cultural factors of kinship, marriage, belief systems with the systems of production and distribution that are governed by the familial, and, the extra familial power structures represented by the political institutions of the State, the religion and now increasingly the corporate sector – greatly determines whether a girl will go to school and for how long and what education is considered necessary and relevant by her primary group, the immediate family and the community. It may be stated that the very strong exogenous factors in the form of State interventions, international pressure and technological advancement appear to be influencing the access and direction of girl's education and social class appears to be a strong variable of female educational participation. In positions of great poverty, gender gets highly exacerbated and remote areas of the country have their share of poverty and underdevelopment and have typically subsistence economies in which women toil for 15 to 16 hours a day. Analysis of the socio-economic and the cultural specificities of remote areas/regions which constrain development of education in general and that of the girls has been carried out elsewhere (Nayar, 2000). The educational and skill deficits of girls continue to be large and the national, even state averages hide more than what they reveal in terms of equity and equality.

Culture is a human phenomenon. Culture is a learned pattern of actions, tools, beliefs, and feelings shared by a community. Culture as "essentially an instrumental apparatus by which man is put in a position the better to cope with the concrete specific problems that face him in his environment in the course of the satisfaction of his needs." Activities, articles and objects are organised around important and vital tasks into institutions such as family, the local community, the tribe, and organized in terms of economic cooperation, political, legal and educational activity. From the dynamic point of view, as regards the type of activity, culture can be analysed into a number of aspects such as education, social control, economics, system of knowledge, belief and morality, and also modes of creative and artistic expression and

importantly language (Herskovitz, 1955) Interplay of material culture and its sanctions (technology, economics), social institutions (social organisation, education, political structures, man and universe) belief systems, the control of power; aesthetic (graphic and plastic arts, folklore, music, dance, drama)

The process by means of which individuals are integrated into their society is called socialization. It involves the adaptation of the individual to the fellow members of their groups, which, in turn, gives them status and assigns the role they play in the life of the community. There is the permitted behaviour for which positive reinforcement is given and prohibited forms of behaviour for which proscriptions and even the punitive is employed. Humans with the symbolic and conceptual forms of speech, alone are able to bring in innumerable variations even in the social structure of family innovate and invent new forms of technologies for interaction with the physical environment and social institutions in the field of the economy, the polity. Religion and belief systems that get entrenched in the conscious and the unconscious of the humans at times leaves them helpless and paralyzed to act at a rational or even at a human level especially when it comes to clash of religious ideologies and often dead custom. At times religious polarization plays havoc within and among nations and within different sub sects of a religious group.

Gender Roles

Though cultures are always changing, most cultural behaviour patterns, for instance, gender roles of their members show a considerable degree of persistence and continuity over long periods (Epstein, 1973). Division and ascription of social status in relation to sex seems basic to all societies and gender differentiation is " more ancient , more widespread than any form of social differentiation" (Holter, 1970). All societies ascribe different attitudes and activities to men and women. Most of these prescriptions are rationalized in terms of biological and psychological differences – differences in roles in reproduction and physical characteristics of height, weight, muscular strength etc. However, comparative studies of roles/status ascribed to women and men in different cultures seem to show that while such factors might have seemed as the starting point of division of labour between sexes, mostly, these are culturally defined (Ralph Linton, 1961, pp 202-208, Mead, 1935, 1950). Even the psychological characteristics ascribed to men and women in different cultures vary so much that they can have little psychological bases. Although, preferred female attributes and behaviour vary universally over a considerable range in most societies there is a core of preferred and imputed feminine attributes and behaviour.

As each culture has its own prescription of sex role appropriate behaviour, these prescriptions are accepted as fact. Children are brought up to fit the designated patterns and any deviation from the norm is punished. These cultural stereotypes become the evaluative framework that affects the judgment and beliefs of men and women regarding the appropriateness of various roles. Women as men acquire, through a process of socialization, a set of attitudes and choices and behaviours which are consistent with the sex roles they are expected to play in society (Bem and Bem, 1970). The sex role belief system operates in several ways. Given a thorough socialization, a woman may never consider roles other than the traditional feminine roles as mother and wife. The socializing agent does not present any alternative attitudinal behaviour models to a child, nor is a girl expected to question the validity of her beliefs. Therefore, this ideology is internalized by girls and women as a matter of fact and the restrictions placed on her self development are likely to be accepted as very normal and unchallengeable (Epstein, 1973 p 19). Children who derive a set of expectations from their culture about themselves, ' learn what to like and what to cherish and disdain'.

Ascription of occupations to men and women in different societies also varies likewise. *Arapesh* women carry heavy loads (as do most African and Asian women) because their heads are so much harder and stronger. Among *Marquesas*, cooking, housekeeping, baby tending are proper male occupations as observed by Ralph Linton (op cit)

Sex role socialization does more than incline the individuals to choose occupations traditionally assigned to their sex. It also fosters needs, values, and skills that cause women not to enter the labour force at all and others do so intermittently. Traditional sex role socialization lays more emphasis on achievement and occupational success in boys than girls. There are investigations to support this idea and go to demonstrate an inverse relationship between sex role ideology and achievement aspiration. A study found that holding traditional sex role values was significantly related to a low level of aspiration as defined by

education, income and work plans. These traditional values include beliefs such as women should not achieve greater success than their husbands or else the emotional balance of the family suffers (Parsons, 1976, Kapur, 1970, Nayar, 1988).

The institution of family forms the core of the South Asian societies. The traditional cultural ideas regarding roles of women are very strong in the sub continent especially in the area of family organisation. Great social, economic and political changes have swept the sub continent but the stable family structure and the spirit of family solidarity has remained a sustaining power, largely on account of the subservience of women and their tendency to accept the unequal division of labour and resources (Even women feel great being made martyrs, making all the sacrifices and adjustments). The Indian family is predominantly patriarchal. Emphases and the authority structure even in nuclear households is similar to that of the traditional joint family in which the male head of the household has power over all younger males and all females (Shukla, 1981, Beteillo, 1964).

The family role of women (to include child bearing, child rearing, sick care and all other domestic work) determine the early socialization of the females and their educational and occupational choices and their performance in the occupational sphere later. A female child, One, is brought up to understand she has come into existence as a mark of favour to her as she is not as valuable as a male child (Papnek, 1973, pp 99-110, Bennet, 1976, pp1-52). In South Asian societies, a woman's sense of worth is related to her social standing, she achieves as a mother of sons. She grows up to adjust to her inferior position vis-à-vis the other sex. The values inculcated in girls and mothers are, for instance, submissiveness, accommodation, deference to the wishes of other people, restraint, humility and tolerance of any excesses against her sex both in the parental home and later in her husband's family.

The restrictive effect of traditional sex roles, socialization in the family has its parallel in educational practices in educational institutions traditionally. Most educational fields remain sex typed, a phenomenon that compounds the occupational stratification by sex. Further, sex biased educational practices, differential curricula, text books perpetuate the traditional division of labour between sexes. This limits not only the range of occupations chosen by women but also lands them in low ranking occupations corresponding to their assisting roles in the household. Thus traditionally education has contributed to educational and occupational stratification between the sexes by encouraging and preparing girls to pursue an extremely limited number of traditionally feminine roles. High level of sex segregation exists in the work force and women enter a limited number of feminine sex stereotyped occupations which are also low in status.

Further, the unequal position of women in the family is determined and reinforced by the dictates of the organized religion. None of the major religions- Hinduism, Buddhism, Islam and Christianity ever conceded complete equality to women and have in fact institutionalized the secondary position of women versus men through written word and oral interpretations by the male clergy. The religion acts as an important cultural factor which reinforces the traditional perception of women as subordinate to males and under male control. The ideal of womanhood is still modelled on the *Brahmanical* tradition and linked to a strongly patriarchal culture assigning a secondary position to women. Buddhism and Christianity offer a relatively more egalitarian existence to women but within the patriarchal mode. Caring for the husband and the children and other members of the family is clearly enjoined on women as a 'first duty' and no laxity on this score on the part of women is tolerated. In popular Buddhism and Islam, women are not allowed to participate in certain religious ceremonies along with men. This is largely due to the myth of uncleanness. For example, women are allowed into the *Devalayas* to perform the *Pongal* ceremony or participate in funeral rites. In certain parts of Sri Lanka, women are not allowed to step on the threshing floor since uncleanness, it is believed, can lead to low yields (Cormack, 1961, pp16-17, Goonatilleke, 1976, pp16-17, Ghimire, 1975, Ward, 1963). In the Indian mythology, male female equality and complementarity is visible and the concept of *Ardhnarishwar* (Half male, Half female God) exists but all the major prophetic religions assert male superiority and lay down prescriptions and proscriptions for females barring the Bhai faith which gives complete equality and respect to women as men and see the two as the two wings of a bird.

It is intriguing to witness the situation as it prevails in Lakshadweep where one finds a peculiar admixture of the Patriarchal Islam and the basic matrilineal, matrilocal form of family and kinship. In this society

where nearly the entire population professes Islam, female literacy is as high as 90% and above and women enjoy complete freedom of movement and the property devolves from the mother to the daughter and men are visiting husbands during the night and go back to their own parental home in the morning for the day's work and it is the men who have to prepare a full dower and support their wives and children. Meghalaya, with similar matrilineal kinship structures offers women more than equality. But when Islam interacts with the patriarchal, patrilineal kinship structures in other parts of India, the position of women is poor and a point of concern.

Specific Educational Constraints in Rural/ Remote Areas

Providing schools within the easy reach of children is a major challenge in rural and remote areas especially in the light of relatively low physical mobility of girls. The small size of the habitations and scattered population groups even within the same habitation and long inter settlement distances make it difficult to open schools within habitations or within easy walking distance. At times, even relaxation of norms does not help in situations where the physical distance measured in kilo meters is compounded by the ecological and topographical constraints. In certain areas, there is the added problem of mobile populations who keep on moving from one location to another in search of food and livelihood. Opening of small schools is not viable financially and academically. Besides the schools, basic educational equipment like blackboards, chalk, maps, globes, books, furniture are in short supply in these areas and do not reach the schools on time. Though provision of the physical infrastructure is no guarantee of quality, a basic minimum is needed for ensuring a good teaching- learning situation.

Missing Girls

The fruits of the engendered education for all programmes and greater political and bureaucratic sensitivity, a highly charged women's movement spearheaded by women scholars and activists are there for us to see. While, education of the girl child appears to have taken off, the flip side is the endangered yet to be born girl. The Census 2001 makes one happy that female literacy has gone faster than that for male although only 52 % females are literate compared to 76 % males. That girls' education has increased at a faster pace than that of their male counterparts during the 1990s is heartening and also that the absolute growth in numbers has also been higher for girls at all levels of education. But the fact of declining / highly unfavourable sex ratio in the age group 0 – 6 years brings one's heart to the mouth, six million girls missing in this age group and 36 million lesser number of females in the population as a whole.

Constitutional and Legal Provisions

The Constitution of India provides the framework for socio legal action for removal of disparities (a) by writing in the equality clauses prohibiting discrimination on the basis of religion, race, caste, sex, or place of birth, and (b) empowering the State to make special provisions for women and children and for the historically disadvantaged sections of population, the scheduled castes (SC) and scheduled tribes (ST) and other backward castes (OBC) in violation of the fundamental obligation of non discrimination. This is considered as a necessary step to ensure de facto equality through strong equity measures and policies.

The State guarantees equal opportunities to women and forbids discrimination in all matters relating to employment and appointment to any public office. Under the protective discrimination clause, the State has passed several social and labour legislations and drawn up special programmes and schemes for the protection, welfare and development of women and children. There are laws to protect women and children from hazardous work, laws providing maternity benefits and child care services, and equal wages for work. Additionally, women have reserved quotas and seats in many educational and training institutions, development schemes, local bodies and in government jobs. In post independence India, a large number of constitutional and legislative measures and many forward looking policies and programmes have been directed at integrating women in the mainstream of national development.

Fundamental Rights

Article 14	Confers on men and women equal rights and opportunities in the political, economic and social spheres
Article 15	Prohibits discrimination against any citizen on the grounds of religion, race, caste and sex
Article 15 (3)	Makes a special provision enabling the State to make affirmative discrimination in favour of women
Article 16	Provides for equality of opportunities in matters of public appointment for all
Article 21	Protection of life and personal liberty
Article 23	Prohibition of traffic in human beings and forced labour
Article 24	Prohibition of employment of children in factories etc
Article 29	Protection of interests of minorities
Article 30	Right of minorities to establish and administer educational institutions

Directive Principles of State Policy

Article 39 (a)	The State shall direct its policy towards securing all citizens, men and women equally, have the right to an adequate means of livelihood
Article 39 (d)	Directs the State to ensure equal pay for equal work for men and women
Article 39 (e)	That the health and strength of workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused

Article 39 (f)	That children are given opportunities and facilities to develop in a healthy manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity and that childhood and youth are protected against exploitation and against moral and material abandonment
Article 41	Right to work, to education and to public assistance in certain cases
Article 42	Enjoins the State to ensure just and humane conditions of work and maternity relief
Article 44	A uniform civil code for the citizen
Article 45	Free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of fourteen within ten years of the coming into force of the Constitution
Article 47	The State is further committed to raising the nutritional levels health and living standard of the people

Fundamental Duties (Part IV A)

Article 51 A Fundamental Duties It shall be the duty of every citizen of India

- (a) to abide by the Constitution and respect its ideals and institutions, the National Flag and the National Anthem,
- (b) to cherish and follow the noble ideals which inspired our national struggle for freedom,
- (c) to uphold and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India,
- (d) to defend the country and render national service when called upon to do so,
- (e) to promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India transcending religious, linguistic and regional and sectional diversities, to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women,
- (f) to value and preserve the rich heritage of our composite culture,
- (g) to protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers, wild life and to have compassion for living creatures,
- (h) to develop scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of inquiry and reform,
- (i) to safeguard public property and to abjure violence,
- (j) to strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity so that the nation constantly rises to higher level of endeavour and achievement

It is important to note that the Constitution is only fifty years old and is superimposed on a highly stratified, iniquitous social fabric of great antiquity, where the regulatory forces had rested with religion and the State. India has one of the most impressive sets of laws for women and children/girls and yet little is known about them either by women themselves or by men. The Indian socio legal framework has, therefore, to contend with deeply entrenched customs and traditions, beliefs and practices of a highly patriarchal and feudal past and present that contributes to the continued subordination women. We are not to forget that bulk of the civil and criminal laws are conceived by, and meant for men, for a society which did not envision any public roles for women, and, was not particularly interested in interfering with the personal laws that sanction an uneven division of labour and resources among the two sexes.

India now has half a century's experience in dealing with sharp inequalities and disparities rooted in several millennia of its evolution. Yet we still see sharp inequalities of caste, creed, tribe and rural urban divide. Gender cuts across all these layers making women and girls of the disadvantaged groups the most deprived members of our society. Gender disparities in educational and all other social and demographic indicators reflect the unequal position of girls and women in a highly sexist, gender discriminatory social context.

Discrimination is a process and disparity and inequality is its end product. Apartheid of gender continues to stare at us despite proactive policies and laws for girls and women. The lives of girls and women continue to be controlled by the patriarchal belief systems and structures which use prescriptions and proscriptions and even naked force to keep women in their place. All decisions are taken by men and all assets are owned by them. The process of gender discrimination begins even before birth and continues throughout the life of a female. That there are 31 million fewer females in the population of India is disturbing but even more alarming is the sharper decline in the proportion in the age group 0-6 years. There are 4 million fewer girls in this age group. Besides women and girls do more work than males but get much less than their legitimate share in food, health, education and training. The traditional gender based division of labour and resources continues to exist. The traditional socialization practices of a society with a marked son preference, agree highly discriminatory and not only physically short changed the girls child on food, health care, education and play but also succeed in making her believe that she is inferior and less competent than her male counterparts.

All women work but majority do domestic work and child rearing tasks which sustain life. Women do use value work more than cash value work and are placed in undifferentiated, unskilled, low skilled, low paid, under paid and low prestige occupations. On accounts of deficits and training, women continue to be marginalized in the economy and the polity. The values of patriarchy - the unquestioned supremacy and dominance of males inform the familial and all extra familial spheres in matters of relations between men and women. Only 8% of the chief national policy makers (Members of Parliament) are female and there are fewer women than the fingers of our hands in the state legislatures even after five decades of India's freedom from an alien power. The recent phenomenon of one million Indian women joining the grass roots democratic institutions, the panchayats, is a rare achievement which deserves notice and has definite implications for the educators to prepare young girls of today for leadership of tomorrow.

The policy framework safeguards the rights of a every child, so of the girl child, to education, nutrition, health and medical care, play and freedom of expression. All education and occupations are open to both sexes equally. Girls and women of urban middle classes are not only entering all occupations but are performing equally well often out pacing their male counterparts. And yet, both men and women feel that women cannot perform, they are inferior, less capable, and are eternally bogged with family problems which obstruct their performance. A woman's work is never done and she carries the double burden and fatigue of all domestic work and child care in addition to paid, unpaid, underpaid, extra domestic work. An attempt needs to be made to make division of labour and resources more equitable by redefining gender roles. In India, school has been given the major responsibility of bringing about women's equality through suitable curricular strategies and reorientation of all educational personnel on issues of gender equality. Besides, the educational system is expected to lead the process of social change and all educational institutions are expected to take up programmes of women's development and women's empowerment.

The Conceptual Shift

A major conceptual shift is noticed in the last decade in the approach to the education of girls and women. Education of girls is increasingly being seen both as a basic human right and a crucial input into national development. Investment in female education is now considered a development imperative rather than a plain moral commitment, thus, lifting it from the plane of pure ethics to that of sound economics. The problem of girls' education, however, does not stand alone but is inextricably linked with the status of women and the underdevelopment of rural areas. The National policies are designed to reach out to girls and other disadvantaged groups in rural remote areas.

The National Policy on Education 1986 is a major land mark in the evolution of the status of women in India. The NPE goes substantially beyond the equal opportunity and social justice approach and expects education to become an instrument of women's equality and empowerment.

The National Policy on Education (NPE) and the Programme of Action (POA), 1986, revised in 1992, give an overriding priority to removal of gender disparities and commands the entire educational system to work for women's equality and empowerment. (The NPE is, perhaps, the most radical statement of its times and is a major landmark in the evolution of the status of women in India.) The Policy addresses not only the issue of equality of educational opportunities for women but in fact puts

the issue equality between sexes center stage. The Programme of Action envisages development of institutional/departmental plans for integrating gender concerns within the education sector. The POA, also, emphasizes inter sectoral collaboration and convergence of efforts of all concerned ministries and NGOs in promoting universal literacy and universalisation of primary education with focus on girls and women. The total approach of the NPE and POA is to link education of girls and women to broader concerns of national development and to develop in them a culture of self reliance, a positive self image and the capacity to participate in decision making at all levels on equal footing.

Further, there is effort now not only to provide equality of educational opportunity but also to transform the entire content and process of education for achieving gender equality and a realignment of gender roles to make them more equitable and harmonious.

The National Policy of Education came soon after the UN Development Decade for Women (1985-95) and reflected adequately the national aspirations for removal of all disparities, of caste, of sex, of region, and to carry basic education to all sections of society living in every nook and corner of the country. This was then the commitment that India carried to the World Conference for All at Jomtien in 1990 and has since then reaffirmed its commitment to attaining the goal of Education for All. This was also a period when experience showed that for raising the status of women, the interventions have to be made very early and the entire South Asian Region committed itself to working for the survival, protection and development of the girl child. As part of the SAARC Decade of the GIRL Child, all national governments including India prepared a Plan of Action to operationalize various aspects of the development of the girl child to include health and education.

Education for Women's Equality

4.2 Education will be used as an agent of basic change in the status of women. In order to neutralise the accumulated distortions of the past, there will be a well-conceived edge in favour of women. The National Education System will play a positive, interventionist role in the empowerment of women. It will foster the development of new values through redesigned curricula, textbooks, the training and orientation of teachers, decision makers and administrators, and the active involvement of educational institutions. This will be an act of faith and social engineering. Women's studies will be promoted as a part of various courses and educational institutions encouraged to take up active programmes to further women's development.

4.3 The removal of women's illiteracy and obstacles inhibiting their access to, and retention in elementary education will receive overriding priority, through provision of special support services, setting of time targets, and effective monitoring. Major emphasis will be laid on women's participation in vocational technical and professional education at different levels. The policy of non-discrimination will be pursued vigorously to eliminate sex stereotyping in vocational and professional courses and promote women's participation in non-traditional occupations, as well as in existing and emerging technologies.

Excerpts NPE, 1986

Major Policy Shifts

- from macro, aggregative, centralized planning to disaggregated, decentralized micro planning with people's participation
- from "welfare" to development and finally the empowerment of women
- from separate curriculum to undifferentiated curricula
- from treating child as a gender neutral category (see National Policy on Child 1974) to gender-inclusive, gender- just approaches seeing children as male and female

- from women's concerns to issues of the girl child, from SAARC year of the Girl Child to SAARC Decade of the Girl Child 1991-2000
- from seeing girls education only as a moral commitment to viewing it as a sound investment
- from manpower/human capital to human resource development, to human development and human rights

From Human Capital to Human rights

There are several marked changes in the overall development perspectives and in the approach to women and development. Development planning earlier reflected the biases of western educated middle class males who saw women as consumers only and not as producers, as beneficiaries of development and not as active agent of development. The movement has been from the limited manpower "approach" (with excessive concern for higher order skills) to relatively broader "human capital" formation and more recently to the more comprehensive human resource development (HRD). The HRD approach wishes to develop self reliance among individuals and believes that enhanced quality of life would generate sustained increase in productivity. This approach visualizes release of human productive capacities via programmes in education, health, nutrition and family planning. The ideas of equity and social justice advocate special reference to HRD for disadvantaged groups. The approach also espouses decentralization of power and resources, setting up locally responsible and accountable institutions, development of capabilities and commitment among local personnel and community level programming, and among all these the important role of the NGOs. Women are increasingly seen as a valuable human resource. The "welfare" approach to women's education and training and that too within the traditional mother / housewife role has expanded to include their hitherto ignored roles as producers, as farmers, as unpaid family workers. Increasingly, it is felt that humans are not only a resource for a society but have an inalienable right to receive basic education and all else commensurate with the dignity of an individual, without any bias of sex, caste, creed, or national origin. (Education is a basic human need and a basic human right and women's education needs to be seen not only as development imperative only, but as an end in itself, as their human right.)

Women and Development

The Indian standpoint did show a distinct shift after the shocking revelations of the 1971 Census and the Report of the Committee on Status of Women (1974) showing declining sex ratio, declining work participation rates and displacement of women from land and work on account of introduction of new technologies, poor health and low educational and nutritional status especially among women belonging to rural areas and urban slums. The period corresponding to the UN Development Decade (1975-85) saw intense activity in India as elsewhere. There was better and more information generated on women by researchers and policies were revamped and many laws were passed to improve the status of women. New institutional structures were set up. In the Sixth Five Year Development Plan (1980-85), women in development (WID) ideology was accepted for the first time and a large number of educational, training, poverty removal and employment programmes were directed at women. In the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90), there were added measures to improve employment chances, production skills and a culture of self reliance among women through availability of credit and skill training etc. In the Eighth Five Year Plan, the emphasis on women's economic and political empowerment emerged very strongly, as also the focus on rural women. This also marked the beginning of the SAARC Decade of the Girl Child and many beginnings of action for survival, protection and development of girls. The Ninth Plan is a proverbial last leap into the next millenium and continues this emphasis and sees education of girls as a non negotiable area.

The socio economic development planning has attempted to create infrastructure and deliver basic services to the population with the goal of raising the quality of life. A large number of schemes and programmes have been initiated for women's development. Several high powered commissions and committees have been set up by the government from time to time to look into the specific interests of women and policy changes proposed. Further, India is a signatory to all major international covenants and conventions on the rights of women and children in particular, and, those referring to all humans.

The SAARC initiative

As a culmination of the concerted efforts during the 1980s, the year 1990 was declared as the SAARC year of the Girl Child. The enthusiastic response to the issues concerning the Girl Child in 1990 resulted in the declaration of the 1990s as the SAARC Decade of the Girl Child by the Heads of Governments and States. This was a conscious attempt to maintain the tempo and drive of various activities initiated in the region during the year of the Girl Child. The National Plan of Action for the SAARC Decade of the Girl Child 1991-2000 A.D. has three major goals of Survival, Protection, and Development of the Girl Child in India while emphasizing the needs of the girl children belonging to special and vulnerable groups and adolescent girls. This plan visualises the cooperation and support of both governmental and non-governmental organizations for its successful implementation and for sustaining the consciousness regarding the rights of the Girl Child with a view to giving her a brighter future. An urgent need is felt to reduce the existing disparities and ensuring equality for the development of the girl child/ adolescent girl.

To achieve this equality we will have to ensure that

- She has the right to survive,
- She has the right to be free from poverty, hunger, ignorance and exploitation,
- She has the right to equality, dignity, freedom, opportunity, care, protection and development, and finally,
- She has the right to enjoy the above rights

National Plan of Action for SAARC Decade of the Girl Child 1991-2000 A.D.

Rights can be declared and policies can be formulated to express our collective liberal and humanistic concern, but unless the real life of the girl child in her family and community is touched by tangible efforts and actions, nothing can be achieved. Therefore, a climate has to be created in which she can exercise her rights freely and fearlessly. One has to work for the transformation of those social and cultural values that shackle and constrict the girl child and mould her into stereotypical roles. For this, every forum and every platform should be used to create awareness and stimulate positive action. Along with this, effective implementation of the laws for protecting her and provision of opportunities for her to benefit from them have to be insured.

As is evident, there is a clear mandate for social mobilisation to change the social and cultural practices that inhibit development of the girl child.

Some important laws in India affecting women in particular.

- *The Equal Remuneration Act* of 1976 provides for equal pay to men and women for equal work.
- *The Hindu Marriage Act* of 1955 amended in 1976 provides the right for a girl to repudiate a child marriage before attaining maturity whether the marriage has been consummated or not, and the right to property and absolute ownership over her property entitling her to make a "will" leaving her share of property to her heirs.
- *The Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act* of 1956 as amended and renamed in 1986 makes the sexual exploitation of male or female, a cognizable offence.
- An amendment brought in 1984 to *The Dowry Prohibition Act* of 1961 made women's subjection to cruelty a cognizable offence. The second amendment brought in 1986 makes the

- husband or in-laws punishable, if a woman commits suicide within seven years of her marriage and it has been proved that she has been subjected to cruelty. Also a new criminal offence of "Dowry Death" has been incorporated in the Indian Penal Code
- *The Factories Act* of 1948 (amended upto 1976) provides for establishment of a creche where 30 women are employed (including casual and contract labourers)
 - *The Medical Termination of Pregnancy Act* of 1971 legalises abortion by qualified professional on humanitarian or medical grounds
 - Amendments to Criminal Law 1983 provide for a punishment of seven years in ordinary cases or rape and 10 years for custodial rape cases. The maximum punishment may go upto life imprisonment
 - A new enactment of *Indecent Representation of Women (Prohibition) Act* of 1986 and the *Commission of Sati (Prevention) Act*, 1987 have also been passed to protect the dignity of women and prevent violence against them as well as their exploitation
 - *The Pre - natal Diagnostic Techniques (Regulation and Prevention of Misuse) 1994*
 - *The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments* (1992) give 33% representation to women in Panchayats and Nagar Palikas and 30% headships to women in these bodies at the village, block and district levels in rural areas and in towns and cities

Some significant laws for children in India

- Children below the age of fourteen cannot be employed in hazardous work. *The Employment of Children Act*, 1938, *The Factories Act*, 1948 amendment in 1949, 1950, 1954, *The Beedi and Cigar Workers Act*, 1966. *The Children (Pledging of Labour) Act*, 1933, aims at eradicating the evil of pledging the labour of young children by their parents to employees in lieu of loans and advances
- *The Child Marriage Act* of 1929 amendment in 1976, to raise the minimum age of marriage for girls from 15 to 18 years and for boys from 18 to 21 years. *Compulsory Primary Education Acts* have been passed by several states

Important committees and commissions

- (Report of the Durgabai Deshmukh Committee on Education of Women (1959) made comprehensive suggestions and became a policy document guiding the subsequent five year plan formulation. The need for undifferentiated curricula for both boys and girls was highlighted as also to treat education of girls as a special problem)
- Undifferentiated curricula upheld by Hansa Mehta Committee on Differentiation of Curricula (1964), Education Commission (1964-66), National Policy of Education (1968) and reiterated strongly in the National Policy on Education 1986 (revised in 1992) and its Programme of Action
- The Report of the Committee on Status of Women Towards Equality, 1974, revealed a declining proportion of women in the population, low female literacy and education, higher female mortality, waning economic participation and poor representation of women in political processes)
- The UN Development Decade (1975-85) saw growth of institutional mechanisms such as the Department of Women and Child Development, Women's Development Corporations, integrating women in the mainstream, Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA), women as special groups for poverty removal, skill development TRYSEM, ICDS. Movement from "welfare" to "development" and finally to "empowerment" in the Eighth Plan

- The National Perspective Plan for Women (1988-2000) chalked out the national gender agenda till the turn of the century with a strong focus on rural and disadvantaged women
- Shramshakti, Report of Committee on Women in Informal Sector documents trials and travails of 94 per cent of all women workers who are employed in the informal sector
- Ramamurthy Review Committee Towards an Enlightened Humane Society underscored the need for redistribution of educational opportunities in favour of girls belonging to rural and disadvantaged sections with adequate support services (water, fodder, fuel, child care) and also asked for 50% share for girls in educational resources

A hallmark of the 1980s and 1990s is the growth of more and better information on women coming in through research-cum-activist efforts and the rise of women's studies to analyse, generate and support action

International Conventions

India is a signatory to all principal international covenants and conventions such as *the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)* and *the CEDAW (1979)*, *the UN Declaration of the Rights of the Child (1959)* and *the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)*

Given below are the main points of CEDAW

Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women was adopted by the UN General Assembly on 18 December 1979. The spirit of the Convention reaffirms UN goals and faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women. The Convention spells out the meaning of equality and an agenda for action enjoining on the State Parties to take "all appropriate measures, including legislation to ensure the full development of women, for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedom on a basis of equality with men"

Discrimination means "any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex - in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field"

Convention of the Rights of the Child

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) proclaimed Childhood is entitled to special care and assistance. UN Declaration of the Rights of the Child (1959) entitles every child to "affection, love and understanding, adequate nutrition and medical care, free education, free opportunity for play and recreation, a name and nationality, special care if handicapped, be among the first to obtain relief in times of disaster, learn to be a useful member of society and to develop individual abilities, be brought up in a spirit of peace and universal brotherhood, enjoy their rights regardless of race, colour, sex, national and social origin"

The Convention on the Rights of the Child was adopted by the UN General Assembly on 20 November 1989 and came into force after the World Summit on Children, 29-30 September 1990. Non discrimination - the key principle - a child to enjoy all rights regardless of his/her parents or legal guardians race, colour, sex, language, religion, political opinion. The State Parties are to

- recognize that every child has the inherent right to life to ensure to the maximum extent possible the survival and development of the child (Article 6)
- provide the child the right to freedom of thought, conscience and expression, to seek and impart information of all kinds (Article 13 & 14)
- see to it that every child enjoys the highest attainable standard of health, treatment, of illness and rehabilitation of health (Article 24)

- provide equal opportunity, free and compulsory primary education, different forms of general and vocational education (free in case of need), access to higher education for all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means, make educational and vocational information available to all children and above all encourage regular attendance and reduce dropout rate
- ensure that education is directed to the development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential, developing in them respect for human rights and fundamental freedom, preparing children for responsible life in a free society in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality between sexes (Article 29)
- recognize the right of the child to leisure, play and recreation and for participating freely in cultural life and the arts (Article 31)
- ensure that the child is protected from economic exploitation, hazardous work or interference with the child's education or anything harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development
- to abide by the Constitution and respect its ideals and institutions, the National Flag and the National Anthem, to cherish and follow the noble ideals which inspired our national struggle for freedom, to uphold and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India, to defend the country and render national service when called upon to do so, to promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India transcending religious, linguistic and regional and sectional diversities, to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women, to value and preserve the rich heritage of our composite culture, to protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers, wild life and to have compassion for living creatures, to develop scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of inquiry and reform, to safeguard public property and to abjure violence, to strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity so that the nation constantly rises to higher level of endeavour and achievement

Gender and Human Development

The Human Development Index (HDI) places India at 128 rank (value 0.563) among 174 countries of the world with a life expectancy at birth of 62.9 years, adult literacy of 55 % and combined first, second and third level gross enrolment ratio of 54% and with real/adjusted GDP per capita of 2077 (PPP\$) according to the Human Development Report, 2000. The HDI is based on three indicators: longevity, as measured by life expectancy at birth, educational attainment as measured by a combination of adult literacy (two thirds weight) and combined primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment ratios (one third weight), and standard of living as measured by real GDP per capita (PPP).

The Gender-related development index (GDI) rank of India is 108, an improvement over the HDI rank of 128. There has been improvement in health and education of women in India. The life expectancy at birth for women in India in 1998 was 63.3 years compared to 62.5 years for men. In high and medium human development countries women live 5 to 7 years longer than men. Adult Female literacy rate percent in India for population aged 15 years and above was placed at 43.5 compared to 67.1 for males. The male-female differentials in literacy are totally obliterated in high HDI countries which include developing countries like Barbados, Bahamas, Singapore, Hong Kong (now in China), Republic of Korea, Thailand and Malaysia among others and even among medium HDI countries like Sri Lanka and the Maldives. In Maldives, female literacy rate is higher than that for males. The combined first, second and third level gross enrolment ratio for girls in India during 1998 were 46.0 compared to 61.0 for boys, this ratio being 100 % for both boys and girls in Canada that remains number one in ranks on HDI and GDI. The male-female gaps are small, even tilting in favour of females in several countries such as Norway, Sweden, USA, France, Finland, New Zealand, Australia, Denmark, Barbados, Bahamas, United Kingdom, and Hong Kong (China) among others. Even in Sri Lanka (GDI rank of 68), a similar trend is noticed, figures being 67.0 for girls and 65.0 for boys and so for Philippines (GDI rank 64) where these ratios are 85.0 for girls and 80.0 for boys (The GDI uses the same variables as HDI). The difference is that the GDI adjusts the average achievement of each country in life expectancy, educational attainment and income in accordance with the disparity in achievement between women.

and men For a detailed explanation of the GDI methodology see technical note 1 in Human Development Report 2000)

The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) which composites, female share in the national parliaments, as administrators and managers, as professional and technical workers and their share of earned income, had a value of 0.240 for India which was ranked 95th among the countries for which data was available The highest value for GEM was for Norway(0.810), followed by other Nordic countries, Sweden (0.777), Denmark (0.765), Canada (0.742), Germany (0.740), Finland (0.737) Some developing countries show a marked improvement over their HDI and even GDI ranking, among them, Barbados, Thailand, Malaysia, Philippines, Sri Lanka and Maldives India , Pakistan, and Bangladesh also fare better on GDI and the GEM compared to their HDI ranking but the value of Gem is poor to say the least, and the GDI value of these countries is no consolation (The first two variables GEM are chosen to reflect economic participation and decision making power, women's and men's percentages shares of administrative and managerial positions and their share of professional and technical jobs Separate indices are worked out for these two occupational categories and are added together The third variable, women's and men's share of parliamentary seats is chosen to reflect political participation and decision making level An income variable is used to reflect power over resources The three indices - for economic participation and decision making, and power over economic resources - are added together to derive the final GEM value for a country (See Human Development Report 1999)

The Gender empowerment measure(GEM) uses variables constructed explicitly to measure the relative empowerment of women and men in political and economic sphere of activity This index tells us about the economic participation and contribution of women and their share in decision making The index has a problem on two counts as regards developing countries One, a large part of the female work is non monetized and spending time on collection of water, fodder, fuel and working on family farms and tending milch animals are considered pure labour of love, leaving little time for women for rest, personal development, care or leisure Time use studies spell out the vital contribution of women in " use value" work as against "cash value" work done more often by men These non monetised tasks generate energy resources for the family but costs in terms of time spent and the body calories expended by these women are rarely acknowledged and least rewarded For want of adequate health, nutrition, water and sanitation, and above all education and skill formation, rural female productivity is low and even negative The second equally difficult part to the index is the absence of reliable data on female earnings as 94 out of 100 women workers are employed in the unorganised sector, equal wages are assured only in government jobs and in public undertakings in India Women are not paid a fair wage in the unorganized or in the informal sector and the private sector is pro male unless for jobs like front office management, sales advertisement, anything where women will lend further boost as good looking shadows to the macho male image. None the less , it is important to see how India is reflected through this index in a comparative framework The GEM composites, female share in the national parliaments, as administrators and managers, as professional and technical workers and their share of earned income No society treats its women as complete equals

The above analysis shows that while income levels of the country determine in large parts the availability of basic services of education, health, housing, water, sanitation, roads and electricity making for higher levels of human development as reflected by the HDI index, countries at substantially lower levels of income have high HDI ranking such as Barbados Singapore, Hong Kong, to name some It is heartening to note that Thailand and Malaysia are among the high HDI countries and this has happened in very recent period on account of very conscious high investments in human resource development which takes into account not only education and skill development but health, housing , water and sanitation besides other necessary infrastructure. Both Thailand and Malaysia rank fairly high on GDI and even GEM Philippines where females outnumber males in education and professional and technical occupations has a rank of 45 on GEM although it ranks 65 on GDI, and 77 on HDI The Indian rank and values of HDI), GDI and should set us thinking, as also the Human Poverty Index(HPI) rank of India at 58 with a value of 34.6 in 1998 Poverty may be some reason for low HDI but low GDI and poor GEM are clearly indicative of the low status and poor position of women in a society

Inter and intra country comparisons give us the basic message that income or affluence is not necessarily a good predictor of how resources are distributed among different groups of population and certainly not among the two sexes. The gender bias operates and continued discrimination against females results in wider gender disparities on social indicators, a movement which is now attempting to capture the distributive aspects of the material wealth of a nation to a great extent.

Some Demographic Facts about India

- ♦ The population of India has increased from 335 million in 1951 to 1020 million in 2001.
- ♦ The average annual exponential growth rate has declined from 2.14 during 1981-91 to 1.93 in 1991-2001.
- ♦ CBR is down from 40.8 in 1951 to 26.4 in 1998 SRS Data (Sample Registration System).
- ♦ CDR has come down from 25 in 1951 to 9.0 in 1998 (SRS).
- ♦ IMR has halved, from 146 in 1951 to 72 in 1998 (SRS).
- ♦ Total Fertility Rate has come down from 6.0 in 1951 to 3.3 in 1997 (SRS).
- ♦ Contraceptive Protection Rate has quadrupled from 10.4% in 1951 to 44% in 1999.
- ♦ Life expectancy at birth has gone up from 37 years in 1951 to 62.9 years in 1999. Female life expectancy at birth was 63.3 years compared to 62.5 years for males.
- ♦ Female mean age at marriage has gone up from 15.4 years in 1951 to 19.5 years in 1991.
- ♦ Literacy rates have moved up from 39% to 54% for females and from 64% to 76% for males seven years plus during 1991-2001. Female literacy has registered an increase of 15 percentage points compared to 12 percentage points for males. Likewise, rural literacy including female literacy has registered better increase compared to their urban counterparts.
- ♦ Sex ratio (number of females per 1000 males) in India is 933 in 2001 having come down from 972 in 1901. There are thirty six million missing females in the total population.
- ♦ Sex ratio in the age group 0-6 years has touched an all time low of 927 which was 976 in 1961. Female feticide and female mortality under five is rampant, more in affluent, more literate parts: Punjab, Himachal, Haryana, Gujarat, Maharashtra and the newly formed Uttaranchal state.
- ♦ For instance, during 1991-2001 there is a decline of 18 points in sex ratio in this age group for the country as a whole. In Punjab, the decline is 82 points, in Haryana 59 points, in Himachal and Chandigarh 54 points and in Gujarat and Delhi by 50 points. Further, sex ratio at birth is becoming highly adverse to females due to sex selective abortions and now pre-conception sex selection techniques getting introduced would really mean fewer and fewer girls to bring up and educate and more and more men without wives! In Punjab, very soon a quarter of men will not find brides.

Table 1.1

Sex Ratio of total population and child population 0-6 years, India and major states in 1991-2001 (Females per 1000 males)

Code No.	State/UT	Total Population		Increase/decrease over 1991	Child population in age group 0-6 years		Increase/decrease over 1991
		1991	2001		1991	2001	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	Jammu & Kashmir	N.A.	970		N.A.	937	
2	Himachal Pradesh	976	970	-7	951	897	-54
3	Punjab	881	874	-8	875	793	-82
4	Chandigarh	798	773	-27	899	845	-54
5	Uttaranchal	936	964	+28	948	906	-42
6	Haryana	865	861	-4	879	820	-59
7	Delhi*	827	821	-6	915	865	-50
8	Rajasthan	918	922	+4	916	909	-7
9	Uttar Pradesh	876	896	+20	917	916	-1
10	Bihar	907	921	+14	953	938	-15
11	Sikkim	879	875	-4	965	986	+21
12	Assam	859	901	+42	981	961	-20
13	Nagaland	886	909	+23	993	979	-14
14	Manipur	958	978	+20	971	961	-10
15	Mizoram	921	938	+17	969	971	+2
16	Tripura	945	940	-5	967	975	+8
17	Meghalaya	955	975	+20	986	975	-11
18	Assam	923	932	+9	975	964	-11
19	West Bengal	917	934	+17	967	963	-4
20	Jharkhand	922	941	+19	979	966	-13
21	Orissa	971	972	+1	967	950	-17
22	Chhattisgarh	985	990	+5	984	975	-9
23	Madhya Pradesh	912	922	+10	941	929	-12
24	Gujarat	934	921	-13	928	878	-50
25	Daman & Diu*	969	709	-260	958	925	-33
26	Goa & Nagar Haveli*	952	811	-141	1013	973	-40
27	Maharashtra	934	922	-12	946	917	-29
28	Andhra Pradesh	973	978	+5	975	964	-11
29	Karnataka	960	964	+4	960	949	-11
30	Goa	967	968	+1	964	931	-33
31	Lakshadweep*	943	947	+4	941	974	+33
32	Kerala	1036	1038	+2	958	963	+5
33	Tamil Nadu	971	986	+15	948	939	-9
34	Pondicherry*	979	1001	+22	963	959	-4
35	Andaman & Nicobar Islands	818	846	+28	973	965	-8
	INDIA	927	933	+6	945	927	-18

Source: Census of India 2001, Provisional totals.

Table 1.2 : Sex Ratio at Birth for India and major states

Sl No	India and Major States	Sex ratio at birth 1981-90	Sex ratio at birth 1996-98
	INDIA	109.5	111.0
1	Andhra Pradesh	104.7	103.2
2	Assam	106.4	109.1
3	Bihar	111.7	111.5
4	Gujarat	111.1	113.9
5	Haryana	115.0	123.3
6	Karnataka	107.3	105.3
7	Kerala	105.5	107.1
8	Madhya Pradesh	108.2	109.9
9	Maharashtra	108.5	109.4
10	Orissa	106.2	107.6
11	Punjab	113.2	122.8
12	Rajasthan	114.1	114.8
13	Tamil Nadu	104.9	104.9
14	Uttar Pradesh	111.6	115.0
15	West Bengal	105.6	105.6

Source: Sample Registration System (SRS)

Note: The internationally accepted normal sex ratio at birth is 105 males to 100 females. In India SRS estimates of sex ratio at birth were an abnormal figure of 109.5 during 1981-90 and stand at 111.0 in 1996-98 and are as high as 123 in Punjab and Haryana. The southern states show conformity to international estimates.

Table 1.3: Age Specific Mortality Rates by Age groups and by Sex in India

Age group in years	1980		1990		1995	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
0-4	43.5	40.1	27.9	24.8	25.3	23.2
5-9	4.0	3.3	2.8	2.3	2.7	2.2
10-14	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3
15-19	2.9	2.0	2.5	1.7	2.0	1.7
20-24	3.8	2.3	3.1	2.4	2.7	2.1
25-29	4.6	4.7	3.2	3.9	3.1	3.7
30-34	7.3	9.6	6.3	9.0	5.2	8.1
35-39	16.7	21.5	14.4	20.9	11.8	17.5
All ages	12.4	12.4	9.6	9.7	8.7	9.3

Source: Women & Men in India, 1998, Central Statistical Organisation, Government of India, p. 10

Note: Female mortality rates are higher up to age 35 years after which male mortality is higher.

Table 4. HUMAN DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH ASIA, SOUTH EAST ASIA AND EAST ASIA

HDI rank		Life expectancy at birth	Adult literacy rate	Combined Primary secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio	GDP Per capita	Life expectancy index	Education index	GDP index	HDI value	GDP Per capita rank minus HDI rank
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
South Asia										
84	Sri Lanka	73.3	91.1	66	2979	0.81	0.83	0.57	0.733	25
89	Maldives	65.0	96.0	75	4083	0.67	0.89	0.62	0.725	1
97	Iran	69.5	74.6	69	5121	0.74	0.73	0.66	0.709	-20
128	India	69	55.7	54	2077	0.63	0.55	0.51	0.563	-7
135	Pakistan	64.4	44.0	43	1715	0.66	0.44	0.47	0.522	-4
142	Bhutan	61.2	42.0	33	1536	0.60	0.39	0.46	0.483	-4
144	Nepal	57.8	39.2	61	1157	0.55	0.46	0.41	0.474	0
146	Bangladesh	58.6	40.1	36	1361	0.56	0.39	0.44	0.461	0
South East Asia and Pacific										
24	Singapore	77.3	91.8	73	24210	0.87	0.86	0.92	0.881	-16
32	Brunei Darussalam	75.7	90.7	72	16765	0.84	0.84	0.85	0.848	-4
61	Malaysia	72.2	86.4	65	8137	0.79	0.79	0.73	0.772	-10
66	Fiji	72.9	92.2	81	4231	0.80	0.88	0.63	0.769	23
76	Thailand	68.9	95.0	61	5456	0.73	0.84	0.67	0.745	-5
77	Philippines	69.1	99.6	78	3194	0.73	0.92	0.58	0.744	26
95	Samoa (Western)	64.8	98.3	66	3403	0.66	0.88	0.59	0.709	1
108	Viet Nam	67.8	92.9	63	1689	0.71	0.83	0.47	0.71	24
109	Indonesia	65.6	85.7	65	2651	0.68	0.79	0.55	0.670	4
118	Vanuatu	67.7	64.0	47	3120	0.71	0.58	0.57	0.623	-12
121	Solomon Islands	71.9	62.0	46	1940	0.78	0.57	0.49	0.614	5
125	Myanmar	60.6	84.1	56	1199	0.59	0.75	0.41	0.585	25
133	Papua New Guinea	58.3	63.2	37	2359	0.55	0.54	0.53	0.542	-17
136	Cambodia	53.5	65	61	1257	0.48	0.64	0.42	0.512	1
140	Lao	53.7	46.1	57	1734	0.48	0.50	0.48	0.484	-9
East Asia										
26	Hong Kong	78.6	92.9	64	20763	0.89	0.83	0.89	0.872	-6
31	Korea, Rep. Of	72.6	97.5	90	13478	0.79	0.95	0.82	0.854	4
99	China	70.1	82.8	72	3105	0.75	0.79	0.57	0.706	7
117	Mongolia	66.2	83.0	57	1541	0.69	0.74	0.46	0.628	10

Source - Human Development Report, 2000

Chapter II

Development of Women's Education in India

In order to understand the developments in the area of education of girls and women in the last fifty years, it would perhaps be pertinent to briefly review the situation of women's education in nineteenth century and in the first half of the twentieth century prior to India's independence when modern education began in India and even in the distant past

Early History

India has early and rich tradition of education of women (nearly 5000 years old) The high point of female education and status in this Sub-Continent was the Vedic Period. Among the Vedic Aryans education was prescribed for all children first under the family elders and later in the house of the Guru on attaining the age of 8 years after a special ceremony known as 'Upanayana'. Education lasted up to the age of 16 and sometimes till the age of 24. A period of 8 years of education was universal among the Aryans (Indian Yearbook of Education, 1964, Altekar, 1956, Mukerjee, 1958)

In Rgvedic times complete education facilities appear to have been available to women. Women attained high educational levels and distinguished themselves. There were sages as well as women who had gone through the discipline of *Brahmacharya*, as recorded in *Sarvamukramika*. There were 20 women 'seers' or authors of *Rgveda*. There were two classes of women students, the *Brahmavadinis*, who studied up to the age of 16 or 18 years and learnt Vedic hymns by heart. Specialists in theological works were termed "Kasakritsni". As a noted sociologist observes, if women scholars in such a technical branch of learning were so numerous as to necessitate coining of a special term to designate them, it would not be unreasonable to conclude that the numbers of women who received general education must have been very large, (Boulding, 1968)

Education was mainly centred in the family and girls studied along with the family males. Women were initiated into the 3 Rs. When writing came into vogue, women participated in democratic assemblies. The marriage hymn expressed the hope that the bride would be able to speak with composure and success in public assemblies during old age. This importance of women's education and confidence about their ability is evidenced in early Upanishads recommending a certain ritual to the householders for ensuring the birth of a scholarly daughter. The Upanishads mention an Aryan lady obtaining the title of Vak le saraswati by her learning. Fine arts like music and singing and dancing were taught only to women. During this period women are said to have followed a variety of occupations to include farming, weaving and dyeing cloth and followed the teaching profession. Lower class women traded.

There was a distinct decline in the overall position and education of women during the Brahmanic period of influence and the all pervasive Brahmanic Codes (that have formed the normative basis for social relation for millennia) took a constrictive view of the position and rights of women prescribing various forms of restrictions for women and generally limiting their sphere of activity to the domestic realm in service roles as nurturers and bearers of the family progeny. Women were forbidden to attend public assemblies and there registered a substantial deterioration in the status of women from an earlier era of full participation in the public life of villages in India. Brahmanical Society took the position that women were inferior to men, a stance that continued till recently. Child marriages were prescribed and all forms of education for women were eliminated. Altekar (op cit, p 90), describes the period between 500 AD to 1800 as one of the progressive deterioration in the status of women.

Kshatriyas are known to have resisted this trend for there is evidence of women scholars in this caste longer than in any other. All royal women received military and administrative training. At the close of one millennium B.C. there were still many highly educated women. The low caste women performed all types of maintenance, craft and trading work. Women of middle classes were confined to "home workshops" (Boulding, op cit, p286). However, the Brahmanical Code and prescriptions assigning a lower position to women vis-à-vis men and alleging inferiority of women on more than one score, including moral and ethical has stayed the dominant force regulating the lives of women of clean/upper caste Hindu women as shadows to their men in the sub-continent and not unoften has affected the lives of women in parallel groups of other religious persuasions. Mies (1978, p31) argues that in India even though the Muslims, Christians and other religious minorities have developed their own sub-cultures, but with regard to the position of women, these groups have taken over many of the values of the dominant Hindu Social Order. Regular celibate order of monks and nuns were organized by Mahavira, the founder of Jainism before Gautama began his teaching, (See N. Shanta "The Doctrine and Life of Junia", Cisterios Studies, 9 2-3 1974, quoted from Elise Boulding, op cit, p 401)

Buddhism rose as an anti-thesis to the all pervasive Brahmanical influence. The Buddhist Order gave a definite place to women, namely, that of bhikkhunis (nuns) and Upasikas (lay female devotees) in their four fold society as female counterparts of bhikkhus (priests) and upasaks (lay male devotees). However, it is to be noted that the Buddha consented to allow women to enter the order after great persuasion and due to the persistent efforts of Gotami and other women of Buddha's own family and at the intervention of Ananda but once women entered the order it was a duty incumbent on them to study the Tripitaka and devote their attention to moral and religious training directed towards spiritual advancement. Once admitted into the Buddhist Order, women found opportunity to engage in educational, religious and social enterprises. Many prominent Theris are mentioned. The unequal position of women in the relatively egalitarian Buddhist, social order may be noted. "A monk specially selected by the brotherhood was to impart instruction and admonition to the nuns twice every month in the presence of another monk". The discipline and duties of daily life were the same for nuns except that the solitary life was practically forbidden them. "Buddhism produced numerous remarkable women within its own fold, who played a prominent part as leaders of thought in that religious reformation. The order of Nuns was training ground of these women. That some of the nuns qualified themselves in the knowledge of the sacred texts so far as to be accepted as the teachers of other junior nuns is evident from a passage in Chullavagga (X,8) which mentions that a Bhikkuni was the pupil of the Bhikkuni Uppalavanna. Regarding their studies the same passage informs us that the Bhikkuni followed the Blessed one for seven years, learning the Vinaya, but she, being forgetful, lost it as fast as she received it. It was then ordered that Bhikkhus should teach the Vinaya to Bhikkunis" (See U.D. Jayasekera, Early History of Education in Ceylon, Ceylon, Department of Cultural Affairs, 1969, p 168, R.K. Mukerjee, Ancient Indian Education, London, 1951, pp 464. Quoted by Jayasekera, Ibid)

Even after women's order was established, women of no matter what age and dignity had to bow before the rawest monks. These women lived together in Viharas (Convents) and could visit laity only for alms. There were no daily liturgies, no work of craft permitted to them and the nuns were discouraged from reading. Instead preference was given to oral teaching by the monks. Buddhism started as an elite religion unlike Christianity where nuns were given a rich liturgical life as an aid to prayer and linked them to community through social service unlike in Buddhism. About Buddha, Boulding states, "Evidently, he both believed and did not believe that women could have the same spirituality as men. We have seen this ambivalence about women in all the world religions. Nuns of both religions were placed under the authority of men and suffered the same kind of second class citizenship even while being pronounced "spiritual equals" (Boulding p402) while in the land of its birth, Buddhism was eclipsed by strong Hindu Brahmanical forces, the spread of Buddhism among the Sinhalese of Sri Lanka and resultant impact on the education and status of women needs to be taken note of.

The incidence of women turning in large numbers to Jain and Buddhist religious orders is interpreted to be on account of two factors among others, viz (a) Both Buddhism and Jainism emphasized "becoming" rather than "being" and did not lead to passivity and withdrawal and (b) the detachment from the responsibilities of family life and the possibilities of individual fulfillment which the teachings offered were welcomed in a society where most options for a women's personal development were being closed off (, Elise Boulding, op cit)

Women and Education - the Pre Independence Period

At the beginning of the 19th century educational facilities for women in the indigenous system of learning (in *Tols*, *Pathshalas*, *Maktabas* and *Madrassahs*) were virtually non-existent according to official surveys. The social status of women was low and women of the middle and upper classes led a life of seclusion under the dominance of family males and interaction with non-family males was prohibited. Among certain Hindu communities, there existed a superstition that a girl if taught to read and write would soon after marriage become a widow!

Modern education began for men with the passing of the East India Company Act of 1813 but the conservative officials of the Company refused to take any direct action in the case of women's education on account of the strict policy of social and religious neutrality and for not wanting to create any commotion by flaunting the existing norms of strict privacy and segregation of women. The company officials restricted their activities only to education of men and even refused financial assistance to special private girls schools. The void created by absence of a state effort in female education was filled by private effort of the Western missionaries and progress during the 19th century

The earliest modern schools for girls were opened by the Christian Missions for the children of the Christian converts but later this opportunity was extended to non-Christians who hesitatingly accepted this offer. However, conversions of some Hindu girls caused a great furore and many parents began withdrawing their female wards from these schools. It was soon evident that missionary education by its very nature would not be an effective agency for the spread of education among Indian Women. Education of women picked up on account of the 'splendid lead' given by some liberal English men like J A D Bethune and Professor Elphinstone. Bethune opened mission schools for girls in which religious instruction was excluded. His schools could be termed as the first secular schools for girls in India. The lead given by these Englishmen was followed by some Indians who could not remain untouched by this gesture. Raja Ram Mohan Roy and Ishwar Chandra Vidya Sagar were the earliest to take concrete steps for improving the educational (and social) status of women. Till 1854, education of girls expanded only on account of non-official effort. (Report of the National Committee on Women's Education - NCWE, Ministry of Education, New Delhi, 1959, p 14)

Whitehead (1981) states the British were reluctant to exert undue pressure to encourage more girls to attend schools for the fear of triggering off unforeseen and perhaps grave social consequences. In the tribal societies of Africa, for instance, women had an important role in food production and keeping girls in schools would have meant these girls being unable to look after the younger siblings. The situation on this score is not different in the South Asian societies and other developing countries.

Even after the 1854, Dispatch had enjoined on the officials to pay special attention to the education of girls, the progress was rather slow till 1870. In the meanwhile, Department of Public Instruction had been established in all provinces in 1868 to develop an integrated system of education for primary and secondary education in the country. The establishment of municipalities, local fund cess in mofussil areas and local funds committees for rural areas led to a large expansion of female education between 1871 and 1882. The insistent recommendation of Mary Carpenter, an English social reformer, for setting up training colleges for women was put into practice in 1870 onward. All conventions were set aside and admissions were open to all adult women "who had no qualifications except the desire to teach" (NCWE-1959). This gave the necessary impetus to girls education and also opened "a very useful career to several women who were in need of some remunerative vocation to give a meaning and purpose to their lives" (Ibid).

According to the 1881 Census Returns, however, for every 1000 boys in schools, the number of girls under instruction was 46, and while one adult male out of 16 could read and write, only one adult woman in 434 could do so. Education of girls as we have noted earlier was spreading largely on account of private effort and only 616 out of 2,697 girls institutions were conducted by the Department in 1882. Also till then, the progress was limited to primary education of girls. The Indian Education Commission (1882) suggested adoption of pupil teacher system, payment of liberal grants-in-aid to private institutions for girls, offering of liberal inducements to the wives of school masters, training of widows as teachers, liberal prizes to girls willing to train as teachers and special assistance to residential girls schools. This bore some fruit. The number of girls institutions rose from 2,697 in

1881-81 to 5,801 in 1901 Collegiate education was only availed by European, Anglo-Indian, Indian Christians and Parsi women till then Among Hindus and Muslims, education of women was confined to primary stage only and 10 Hindus and 4 Muslims women were literate in English for every 1 million of population At the turn of the century, 3,982 girls schools out of a total of 5,305 at the primary stage, 356 of 422 secondary schools and 32 of 45 training schools and 1 out of 12 colleges for women, were conducted by private effort NCWE, 1959)

It would be of interest to note that as early as 1882-83, the Indian Education Commission noted that the female education is in an extremely backward condition and recommended that public funds of all kinds – local, municipal and provincial should be chargeable in an equitable proportion for the support of girls' education The Commission also recommended giving of liberal grants to private schools, awards/ grants to women wanting to train teachers, starting of TTIs for women and a separate inspectorate for girls' education and considered it necessary to extend primary education to backward classes specially amongst the aboriginal tribes and low castes through fee exemption The Commission noted that "the best teacher for girls and small children in a village school, as elsewhere, would be a well trained woman, but the difficulty of establishing a service of such teachers in country places are very great, and the supply is small The active entry of Indian women into the arena on the side of educational and social progress is a feature of real promise. Much sagacity, patience and perseverance will be required. The gallant determination of the pioneers is blazing the trail, but much more than a decade of enthusiasm is necessary to breakthrough obstacles which centuries have helped to build up "

The Role played by movements of social reform and cultural revivalism (primarily led by males) in furthering the cause of women's education in India during the 19th century may be noted As Mazumdar observes, the Missionaries' challenge produced both a positive and negative reaction in that it led to the religious and social awakening of which the school of 'Hindu Protestantism' is one instance and large scale social reform movements are the others (Mazumdar, 1976) The social reform movement in India was led by both the English educated like M G Ranade, N G Chaudharni and K Viresalingam Pantulu and the vernacular educated Ishwar Chandra Vidya Sagar, Jyotiba Phule and Gopal Hari Deshmukh and so on Tradition was differently employed and interpreted by the social reformers The progressives and revivalists, among them, Ram Mohan Ranade, Dayanand Saraswati and their followers harked back to the high social and educational status of women in ancient times but Vidya Sagar, Phule and Lokhitwadi Deshmukh made a frontal attack on the Hindu social structure and caste as a major enemy of the position of women and questioned some of the fundamental values of the Hindu society which Ranade wanted to purify and preserve (Ibid)

The interest in the question of the position of women and reinterpretation of tradition sprang from the need to counteract the picture of degradation of Indian womanhood painted by the Victorian English authors and observers The Indian leadership interested in the reform and progress of the social evidence contained in Sanskrit literature and scriptures to prove that women did not have a position of degradation at the beginning of Hindu Civilization However, this revivalistic interpretation of the old literary sources had the important function of supporting the social reform laws on women against the criticism of Hindu orthodoxy and helped in legitimizing the same by drawing on tradition (Singh, 1965, Mies, 1980)

Education was seen as a necessary condition for raising the status of women in society and for improving the quality of family life as also for strengthening the bonds of tradition and the family as the chief unit of social organization It was felt that " Denial of education and early marriage prevented the development of the personality and rationality of women Stunted and crippled personality affected the harmony of the family atmosphere weakening the bonds of the family (Towards Equality, Report of the National Committee on Status of Women in India (CSWI) , Delhi, 1974, p 234) Education of women was meant to improve the functioning of women in their traditional roles within the family or for raising their status within the family and no other roles in the wider social context were envisaged or catered for The absence of any economic or broader social motive than family's well being is recognized as the main cause for the slow development of women's education in India The social reform movement in India besides waging a war against social evils like Sati, child marriage, ban on widow remarriage, dowry and the like, gave an impetus to women's education A large number of secular and non-Christian denominational institutions for girls came up due to individual and group efforts The Arya Samaj, Dev Samaj, Sanathan Dharam Sabha, the Khalsa

Diwan, Ram Krishna Mission and a host of other religious organizations funded female education and created an atmosphere favourable to education of girls and the major hurdle of the fear of conversion receded (CSWI, Ibid)

Contemporaneously, Deem (op cit P 5) observes that in the 19th century England, "Capitalists, the Church and Charitable institutions all saw the education of girls in terms of the effects which it would have on their families (that is, in increasing their domestic skills so that a higher standard of case would be provided, and in raising the moral standards of their children and men folk) rather than for the benefit which it might confer on girls themselves" White Head, (op cit , p 77) analysed causes of low enrolment and poor school attendance among girls in British Colonial Territories makes Clive arrive at the conclusion that early age of marriage, lack of any economic motivation and cultural and practical consideration were possibly the reasons for this sluggish growth and not "any deliberate policy of neglect" on the part of the colonial administrators

Acute shortage of women teachers adversely affected the growth of schooling of girls Married women were occupied with their domestic duties and unmarried women hardly existed The custom of burning the widow on the funeral pyre of the husband that prevailed in India till the 19th century and was later banned by the British Rulers at the instance of the Indian leadership (NCWE, op cit , p 25)

During 1920-21, education of women developed at a faster pace due to the great public awakening created by the struggle for independence The extent of direct effort by the State increased but the bulk of girls institutions were still private and government aided The number of special girls institutions was 23,778 enrolling 12,24,128 girls in 1921-22 Between 1917 and 1922, the number of trained primary women teachers rose from 2,751 to 4,391 The girls showed keenness to go to school and became teachers and in spite of all the difficulties and the scandals which teachers had to face, specially prior 1919, women turned up in increasing number for village teacherships In 1921, the various State Educational Reports indicated that Indian public opinion was slowly changing from its former attitude of positive dislike to education of girls and was gradually progressing through apathy to cordial cooperation In Bengal, a system of peripatetic teachers to educate girls was introduced as all schools were manned by men teachers and which discouraged parents of girls from sending their wards to schools In Punjab, a number of denominational schools were opened for girls During 1921-47, the number of girls receiving education increased from 12,24,128 in 1921-22 to 42,785 in 1946-47 and number of girls per 100 boys in schools was 30 An important event to be noted was that in 1921-22, 35% of the total number of girls were in mixed institutions, and by 1946-47 more than half of the girls in primary and 50 % of those in higher education were in co-educational institutions At the secondary level, the number of girls in all girls institution was substantially larger, though in 1946-47, 28,196 of 2,10,165 educational institutions in the country were special girls institutions with 34 75 lakh girls on rolls Female literacy was 6 per cent in 1946-47 as compared to 0 7 per cent in 1881-82 Though the female enrolment had made sufficient progress, shortage of women teachers continued to be felt constantly This was despite the fact that nearly one lakh women teachers were part of teaching force at that time Earlier , the Hartog Commission (1917) had made a case that more women teachers were needed and not only for girls schools It was considered that women would make better teachers (Mathur, 1973, pp 62-67)

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women teachers were needed and not only for girls schools. It was considered that women would make better teachers (Mathur, 1973)

The Calcutta University Commission (1917-19) This commission felt that Purdah Schools should be organized for Hindu and Muslim girls where parents were willing to extend their education up to 15-16 years and among others "special attention was to be paid to women's education" Simon Commission (1930) reiterated the earlier view about the importance of education of girls and women in any scheme of national organization and stated, " It is not merely that an illiterate female population cripples a nation by the comparative immobilization of a half of its intellectual resources, the whole texture and strength of the national life are largely dependent on the contribution which women make to it . Alike for the training and instruction of the young and for the readjustment of the Indian social system, the Indian woman is pivotal. It is manifest that the best teacher for girls and small children in a village school but the difficulties of establishing a service of such teachers in country places are very great, and the supply is very small "

The Post War Education Development Plan 1944 stated that India would need forty years to universalize primary education and that what was good for boys was equally so for girls and hence no separate provisions were necessary

Post Independence Period

As we have noted, girls education developed largely through private initiative in the pre independence period and the State started taking interest only in 1880s and several education commissions and committees set up by the British rulers took cognizance of the need to educate girls and women in the larger interest of the society (After independence several committees and commissions have been set up from time to time on education, some exclusively for women's education and their development) The views of these bodies comprising erudite men and women influenced educational policies in general and also defined the approach to women's education which as we shall notice later, has changed substantially over the last five decades

The University Education Commission (1948-49) The University Education Commission set up by the Government of India declared " there cannot be an educated people without educated women. If general education had to be limited to men or to women , that opportunity should be given to women, for then , it would most surely be passed on to the next generation " However, the observations of the Commission given below reveal that an effort was made to emphasize the need for educating women for their roles as they obtained at that time "The greatest profession of women is , and probably will continue to be , that of home maker. Yet her world should not be limited to that one relationship. There are varied conditions which may properly lead a woman to seek for fulfillment of her life in other fields. Among the great contributions to human welfare have been some men who determined to forego home and family in order to commit themselves wholly to the chosen work of their lives. Women should have the same opportunity. The place of wife and mother offers opportunity for exercise of the highest qualities and skills, yet for a woman to decide that she can best fulfill her aims by living a single life should not put her under a social disability. Sometimes also, there is a period before marriage during which a young woman can do useful work, such as teaching or nursing. Sometimes , the loss of a husband makes her the bread winner for the family. When children are grown there often remain ten to twenty – five years of vigorous life in which a woman may wish to have a useful career. Sometimes husband and wife wish to share a common occupation through the useful career. Sometimes, husband and wife wish to share a common occupation through the years. Sometimes with women, as with men, the needs of home and family leave time for useful and interesting occupations. For all such circumstances educational opportunities should be available"

The recommendations of the University Education Commission were in consonance with its view of what education for women should mean and aim at. These recommendations were:

- i) There should be no curtailment in educational opportunities for women,
- ii) There should be intelligent educational guidance, by qualified men and women, to help women to get a clearer view of their real educational interest, to the end that they shall not try to imitate men, but shall desire as good education as men get. Women's and men's

education should have many elements in common, but should not in general be identical in all respects, as is usually the case today

- iii) Women students in general should be helped to see their normal places in normal society Both as citizens and as women and to prepare for it, the college programme should be so designed according to the needs of the women,
- iv) Through educational counsel and by example the prevailing prejudices against study of home economics and home management should be overcome
- v) The college education may be co-educational The women's college commonly have poorer buildings, poorer equipment, and less able teachers

The Commission for Secondary Education (1952-53) The Commission for Secondary Education also enunciated the view that women's education had the major task to prepare them for home. It said (Chapter IV) "It will be noticed that in this Report no particular chapter has been devoted to the education of women. The Commission feels that, at the present stage of our social evolution there is no special justification to deal with women's education separately. There was general agreement, however, that for girls – as well as for boys – education needs to be more closely connected with the home and the community. It should be less bookish in the narrow sense of the word and more practical and should explore the possibility of training the mind through the hands. It should do much more to prepare them for the part they will have to play later as parents and as citizens, i.e. the claims of family life should be considered as important as those of public life. For this reason, it was urged that the teaching of Home Science in Girls' School (and wherever possible, for girls attending boys' schools), should be radically improved not necessarily with the idea that women's place is restricted to the home, but because it is essential that she should be educated to fulfill her two-fold duty of family and society. If greater attention is given to Home science, with special emphasis on practical work of every day needs and problems, it will help to bridge the gulf between the school and the life of the home and the community, and be a better preparation for girl's life after school, in which home making will necessarily play an important part."

The National Committee on Women's Education (1958-59) The question of women's education was considered with a totally new and refreshing approach by The National Committee on Women's Education (1958-59) more popularly known as The Durga Bai Deshmukh Committee. This Committee analyzed the problem in detail and delved deep in its various ramifications. It made recommendations of far reaching consequences which, if implemented, would have changed the picture of women's education totally. The recommendations which according to the Women's Commission, needed top priority were

- 1 The education of women should be regarded as a major and a special problem in Education for a good many years to come and a bold and determined effort should be made to face its difficulties and magnitude and close the existing gap between the education of men and women in as short a time as possible
- 2 The highest priority should be given to schemes prepared from this point of view and the funds required for the purpose should be considered to be the first change on the sums set aside for the development of education
- 3 Necessary steps should be taken, without delay, to create a special machinery to deal with the problem of the education of girls and women and to assign adequate funds for the purpose
- 4 Steps should be taken to constitute as early as possible, a National Council for the Education of Girls and Women
- 5 The problem of the education of women is so vital and of such great national significance that it is absolutely necessary for the Centre to assume more responsibility for its rapid development. This responsibility will be three-fold
 - (i) It should be a responsibility of the Centre to see that parity between the education of boys and girls is reached as early as possible, and also to see that the education of girls and women is developed evenly in all parts of the country;
 - (ii) The Centre should prescribe targets to be attained also guide the States in preparing comprehensive development plans for the education of girls and women in their areas,
 - (iii) The Centre should assist the States financially in implementing the approved plans

- 6 There should be a senior officer of the rank of Joint Educational Adviser at the Centre to look after the education of girls and women
- 7 It would be necessary to create a separate unit in the Ministry of Education to deal with the problems of the education of girls and women. This unit would naturally be under the control of the Joint Educational Adviser, who should also be the *ex-officio* Member Secretary of the proposed National Council for the Education of Girls and Women
- 8 The state Governments should establish State Councils for the education of girls and women
- 9 In each State, a woman should be appointed as Joint Director and placed in charge of the education of girls and women. She should be responsible for the planning, organizing and execution of all the programmes pertaining to their education
- 10 The magnitude of the problem of the education of girls and women is so great that it can be solved only if all the resources of Government and of non-official organizations are combined and fully geared to the task
- 11 It is also necessary to enlist the co-operation of all semi-official organizations, local bodies, voluntary organizations, teachers' organizations and members of the public to assist in the promotion of the education of girls and women
- 12 To the extent that private effort is not forthcoming, direct action should be taken by the State to develop the education of girls and women and to establish special institutions for the purpose under its immediate control
- 13 A sum of not less than Rupees 10 crores in addition to provisions that already exist should be earmarked for the education of girls and women during the remaining period of the Second Five Year Plan, and an adequate special provision made for their education in the Third Plan
- 14 The amount will thus be set aside for the development of the education of girls and women during the remaining period of the Second Five Year Plan should be utilized for the following purposes:
 - (i) Development of middle schools for girls,
 - (ii) Development of secondary schools for girls,
 - (iii) Development of training institutions for women,
- 15 Construction of hostels for – girls and staff quarters for girls' institutions at all levels, and
- 16 Organizing special educational facilities for adult women
Preference should be given to institutions in rural areas and liberal grants should be given to private efforts
- 17 Every State should be required to prepare comprehensive development plans for the education of girls and women in its area. For this purpose, two plans—one for the remaining period of the Second Five Year Plan and another for the period of the Third Plan are necessary
- 18 The system of matching grants should be done away with in so far as the development of the education of girls and women is concerned and the entire financial responsibility for this programme should be that of the Government of India
- 19 During the Third Plan, there should be a special programme for the development of the education of girls and women, which is not covered by any of the general programme and a sum of not less than Rs 100 crores should be allocated for it
- 20 The University Grants Commission which is a statutory body empowered to deal with colleges and universities, should set apart a special fund of not less than Rs 1 crore for the remaining period of the Second Five-Year Plan for giving necessary grants to colleges, including training colleges, for the construction of hostels for girls. While sanctioning these grants, preference should be given to colleges in rural areas and to semi-urban institutions. The funds should be utilized either for purposes of grant-in-aid or for loans. When grants are given, they should cover 75 per cent of the total expenditure and, in case of rural colleges, grants on a 100 per cent basis may be given. The loans should cover the entire cost of the projects and should preferably be interest-free. Their repayment should be spread over a fairly long term
- 21 The Planning Commission should set up a permanent machinery to estimate, as accurately as possible, the women-power requirements of the Plans from time to time and make the results of its studies available to Government and the public.
- 22 Governments should set up, as early as possible, a high-power Committee to examine the so-called wastage in the medical and professional education of women

Other special recommendations of the Committee to promote women's education at all levels were as under

✓ Primary Education (6-11 years)

- i School mother should be appointed in all schools where there are no women teachers, on the staff
- ii In every co – educational school separate lavatory arrangements with necessary privacy should be made for girls
- iii Concessions in kind (not in cash) should be given to all girls, whether from rural or urban areas, of parents below a certain income level. Such concessions should cover the cost of books and stationery, school uniform or clothing and other such necessary educational equipment
- iv Government should encourage the opening of more crèches for the care of the younger children. These crèches can be located at community centers, Mahila Samitis, in buildings attached to schools or in other suitable places. They may be run as part of Welfare Extension Projects or by Voluntary workers
- v The Government should formulate a scheme for awarding prizes to the village which shows the largest proportional enrolment and average attendance of girls in each small group of villages, a block, a taluka, or a tehsil. Rotating shields may also be instituted for the purpose, the village showing the best progress being allowed to win and keep the shield for one year
- vi Graded attendance allowances of teachers on the basis of average attendance of girls, in their classes, may be introduced in rural areas
- vii (a) Two or three prizes in the form of useful articles may be awarded to girls in every primary schools for regular attendance
(b) Attendance scholarships in the form of useful articles may also be given to poor girls
- viii The mere passing of compulsory legislation would be of no avail unless suitable conditions for encouraging parents to send their daughters to schools are created. Greater emphasis, therefore, should be laid on the creation of such conditions rather than on giving the authorities concerned more penal powers
- ix The Government should recognize the great importance of creating a strong public opinion in the country in favor of the education of girls and women and take all possible measures for the purpose. These measures may include
 - (i) Organising of a women's education week every year,
 - (ii) Carrying on social education work among adult women,
 - (iii) Associating village women and Mahila Mandals through school Committees etc
 With the work of increasing the enrolment of girls in primary schools

Middle and Secondary Education (Age group 11– 17 years)

- i In so far middle school education is concerned the existing disparity between the enrolment of boys and girls may be brought down to a point where the percentage of girls in schools is at least half of that boys in schools (the estimated disparity at the end of the Second Plan being 32:1) by the end of the Third Plan, parity between the two being aimed at by the end of the Fourth Plan. So far as secondary education is concerned it is difficult at present to lay down any precise target
- ii (a) At the middle school stage, more and more co – educational institutions should be started, subject to the conditions that adequate attention is paid to meet the special needs and requirements of the girls,
(b) But the secondary stage, separate schools for girls should be established specially in rural areas, at the same time giving parents full freedom to admit their girls to boys' schools if they so desire. Although co – education at the secondary stage has not been recommended, all the same every effort should be made to remove the genuine difficulties and valid apprehensions that exist today in regard to education, at this stage. One way to do this is to take special care in recruiting the right type of staff including Heads for co – educational schools. Parents should also be given the opportunity of paying periodical visits to schools and of coming to know directly about the work and the atmosphere there. The appointment of women teachers and, if possible, of women Heads in co – educational institutions would instill great confidence in the parents and thus be a real help in increasing the enrolment of girls

- (c) Where co – education is not acceptable , an alternative is to start separate shifts for boys and girls in the same school building, so as to avoid duplication of buildings and equipment
- iii (a) All girls (and all boys also) of parents below a prescribed income level should be given free education up to the middle stage.
(b) In the secondary stage free education has not been recommended but in so far as girls are concerned, liberal exemptions- full and partial – from tuition and other fees should be granted to them
- iv (a) Suitable hostel facilities should be provided in as many schools as possible and non – matching building grants given for construction of the hostel buildings
(b) The board and lodging arrangements in these hostels should be cheap , and payment in kind should be permitted wherever required
(c) Free and half – free board and lodging should be made available to poor and deserving students
- v As far as possible, free or subsidized transport should be made available to girls in order to bring middle and secondary schools, within easy reach
- vi Certain necessary special facilities should be provided to girls in co – educational schools to as full an extent as possible
- vii (a) Up to the middle stage all girls from rural and urban areas , of parents below a certain level of income should be given help in cash or kind to cover the items like books, stationery and other necessary educational equipment , school uniform or clothing
(b) In the secondary stage this help should be extended only to such deserving and poor girls about whom there exists some certain certainty that after completion of their secondary education they may take up some vocation
- viii There should also be adequate provision for awarding scholarships on merit to girls in the middle and secondary stages
- ix In order to make the education of girls more purposive and practical, effective guidance services should be provided in all schools as far as possible
- x Part- time education, night schools , crèches , education of public opinion , teacher – parents co –operation and education of adult women are particularly recommended

This Committee urged the UGC to set apart special funds for the higher education of women The Committee suggested the creation of a National Council for Women's Education for guidance, leadership and advice, with a special unit in the Ministry of Education to look after this aspect of education It also recommended the setting up of State Councils for Girls' and Women's Education and the appointment of a women Deputy or Joint Director in the Directorate to look after the educational needs of the girls Government of India generally accepted the recommendations made by the National Committee and decided to accord a very high priority to women's education in the Third Five Year Plan

The Union Ministry of Education set up the *National Council for Women's Education 1959* which was reconstituted in 1964 A special unit was created subsequently in the Ministry to deal with issues arising out of programmes formulated to further this cause Most of the State Governments also established State Councils for Women's Education The functions of these State Councils were as under

- (i) to advise the Government on education of girls at school level and of adult women,
- (ii) to suggest and fix programmes, targets and priorities for improvement and expansion of girls' and women's education,
- (iii) to suggest suitable measures for educating public opinion in favour of girls' and women's education,
- (iv) to assess the progress achieved in the field from time to time;
- (v) to recommend collection of statistics on problems relating to the subject

These recommendation did have their impact and the State Government showed special interest in women's educational programmes

- ✓ The Hansa Mehta Committee (1962-64), appointed by the National Council of Women's Education (NCWE) suggested co-education be adopted as the general pattern at the elementary stage and vigorous propaganda made in its favour As a transitional measure separate primary and middle

schools could be provided where necessary. At the secondary level, it was left to the choice of the management and parents to evolve separate institutions for girls. Women teachers, it was recommended, should be inducted in boys' schools to encourage girls to join these institutions. The Committee recommended common curricula for boys and girls at the elementary stage, with home science as a common core subject for both boys and girls at the middle stage. This Committee made several recommendations concerning provision of educational facilities for girls and for curriculum at different levels for education.

The NCWE appointed another Committee under the chairmanship of M. Bhaktavatsalam in 1963 to investigate the cause for lack of public support for education of girls particularly in rural areas and to suggest suitable measures to secure public cooperation. The Committee stated, "In our opinion the strategy for development of education of girls and women will have to take two forms, the first is to emphasize the special programmes recommended by the National Committee on Women's Education. The second is to give attention to the education of girls at all stages and in all sectors as an integral part of the general programmes for the expansion and improvement of education."

The Bhaktavatsalam Committee made recommendations in the following areas

- (ii) public co-operation,
- (iii) state responsibility,
- (iv) schools in all areas,
- (v) provision of pre-primary schools,
- (vi) good school buildings,
- (vii) women teachers,
- (viii) good working conditions,
- (ix) part-time appointment,
- (x) education for adult women,
- (xi) relaxation in age limit for women,
- (xii) posting of women teachers near their homes,
- (xiii) preference to women candidates in admission,
- (xiv) training facilities to women candidates,
- (xv) residence facility for women teachers,
- (xvi) sound inspection for improvement in girls education.

The National Committee on Women's Education (1970) was appointed to review the development of women's education. The Committee recommended that-

- (i) priority should be given to women's education in future,
- (ii) discrimination between boys and girls should be curbed,
- (iii) government should encourage States to launch various programmes for girls education.
- (iv) proper facilities and protection should be provided to women teachers serving in rural areas. The problem of inadequate availability of women teachers was to be tackled by giving scholarships to local girls to complete their education.

The Education Commission 1964-66

The first comprehensive Indian Education Commission (1964-66) under the chairmanship of Dr. D. S. Kothari, reviewed Indian education in its totality. Linking Education with Development through developing productive skills, modernizing the Indian developing a scientific temper, and promoting national integration were seen as the major goals of education in India. The Commission gave special attention to women's education and fully endorsed the recommendations of the earlier commission and committees on women's education.

The commission reiterated the need to make education of women a major programme of educational development in order to close the large male female gap as early as possible by starting special schemes for this purpose. Funds were to be made available for women's education on a priority basis and both the Centre and the States should set up a special machinery to look after girls education. Both official and non-official efforts need to be pooled in planning and implementing programmes of women's education.

The Education Commission stressed that where co-education was not acceptable, separate schools for girls should be provided. In addition, hostels, for girls should be encouraged, wherever possible, subsidized transport should be arranged and girls given special preference in scholarships programmes. The Commission emphasized the need to give adequate attention to training and employment of women. Part time and vocational education should be developed for girls. A vast majority of girls who left school at 14 would benefit from short vocational courses. Likewise, higher education should be linked to employment. The Commission found the state of female literacy as particularly distressing and observed that the effort being made in the direction of making women literate, left much to be desired. There was need to have a common school system with common curricula for both boys and girls.

✓ The National Policy on Education 1968

The National Policy on Education 1968, stated that the education of girls should receive emphasis, not only on ground of social justice but also because it accelerates social transformation. Equality of educational opportunities for all sections of population was emphasized. - Pre-school education was seen as a necessary complement to primary education.

✓ The National Policy Resolution on Child (1974)

The Government of India proclaimed the National Policy Resolution on the Child in 1974 declaring "The nation's children are a supremely important asset. Their nurture and solicitude are our responsibility."

- This policy lays down that the State shall provide adequate services to children both before and after birth and through the period of growth to ensure their full physical, mental and social development. State shall progressively increase the scope of services so that within a reasonable time all children in the country enjoy optimum conditions for their balanced growth.

The measures suggested for the attainment of these objectives are,

- a comprehensive health programme
- nutrition services for removing deficiencies in the diet of children, expectant and nursing mothers,
- nutrition education of mothers
- free and compulsory education for all children upto the age of 14 year including non-formal education for pre-school children, promotion of physical education and recreational activities,
- special consideration for the children of weaker sections like Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes,
- prevention of exploitation of children, and
- special facilities for children with different types of handicaps

In the wake of the policy on the children, the National Children's Board was constituted and recognizing the importance of health, nutrition and education for children, the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) and several other programmes for children were started. (The National Policy on the Child, saw child as a gender neutral category and ignored the need for segregated targets and strategies for reaching out education and health services to girls in gender discriminatory cultures.) *

The National Council for Women's Education which was set up by the Ministry of Education, following one of the main recommendations of the National Committee on Women's Education, at its thirteenth meeting held in 1974 made important recommendations for the education of women, through formal and non-formal channels. Some of which are as follows:

- (i) allocation of funds by the Centre for grants to voluntary organizations and institutions for special projects for the improvements of the education of girls and women,
- (ii) provision of facilities and incentives to increase the enrolment of girls,
- (iii) condensed courses for teacher training,
- (iv) encouraging local girls and women to work as teachers in the rural areas, if not trained, after going through the condensed course for teacher training,

- (v) provision of part-time and non-formal education as well continuing education, specially for girls dropping out of schools, and preparing a suitable, curriculum for it, those in need of such education,
- (vi) establishing women's polytechnics and ITI in rural areas by offering educational programmes related to trades and needs of that region,
- (vii) provision of teachers' quarters for women, with suitable security, not isolated from the heart of the village or township or provision of twin quarters for women teachers and other women functionaries of that area,
- (viii) requesting Nehru Yuvak Kendras to cater to the needs of girls and women through their network all over the country in addition to catering to the needs of boys and men

The Report of the Committee on Status of Women in India (CSWI), *Towards Equality* was placed before the Parliament in 1975. The Committee examined the constitutional, legal and administrative provisions which had a bearing on the status of women and noted with concern poor female literacy, the declining sex ratio, and declining work participation rates, concentration of women in low paid occupations and that women were deprived of basic needs of health, nutrition, education and employment and were in a situation of total powerlessness with no share in decision making processes. The CSWI report had tremendous influence on social policies and legislations concerning women, coinciding with the International Women's Year and the start of the Women's Decade. The Committee recommended co-education as a long term policy in view of the economic constraints and equality of opportunity. It was noticed that by and large, besides being insufficient in number, the quality of provision in girls schools was inferior, both in terms of physical infrastructure and teachers. Separate institutions for girls were however recommended in areas where there was continued sex segregation. Mixed staffing was recommended for co-educational schools to draw more girls. For universalization of elementary education, the Committee recommended, inter alia

- (i) provision of primary schools within walking distance from the home of every child,
- (ii) sustained mobilization of public opinion and community support for creating a favourable climate for girls education. All officials and non officials, social and political leaders were to motivate parents and community to send girls to school, especially in backward areas,
- (iii) special incentives to be given to girls in areas of low female enrolment of girls,
- (iv) at least 50 % of the teachers at the elementary stage would be women,
- (v) a system of part time education for girls who are unable to attend school on a full time basis

The CSWI recommended a common course of education for both boys and girls till the end of Class X, all courses being open to both sexes after that. At the primary stage the committee suggested that simple needle work, music and dancing should be taught to both boys and girls. This was in line with earlier recommendations of the National Committee on Women's Education 1959, the Hansa Metha Committee 1964 that had recommended common curricula for boys and girls at all levels, and inclusion of home science in the core curriculum for both boys and girls in Classes V-VIII.

Education of Girls and Women in the Five Year Plans

The First Five Year Plan (1951-55). The neglect of women's education was noted with concern as girls constituted only 28 % and 18 % of the total number of children enrolled in primary and middle stage in 1949-50. The Constitution adopted in 1950, directed the State to provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of fourteen by 1960. Girls enrolment ratio was only 24.6 % at the primary level and 4.5 % at the middle level. Differential targets were fixed for boys and girls. In the first five Year Plan, actual achievement of girls enrolments was 7 % lower than the target of 40 %. In absolute terms, number of girls increased from 5.38 million to 7.64 million at the primary level and from 0.45 million to 0.69 million at middle level. The percentage of girls in total, increased from 26.7 % to 28.2 % at the elementary stage (primary and upper primary), from 13.9 % to 16 % in higher secondary classes, and from 12.4 % to 13.6 % in colleges and universities during the plan period. All

boys institutions were now open to girls. Co-education was on the increase and 70.7 % girls were studying in boys' institutions. Steps were advocated to increase girls' enrolment by motivating parents to send them to co-educational schools. Emphasis was on expansion of educational facilities for girls and diversification of secondary education to give it a vocational basis. Rural women were subsumed under the community development programmed. Poor women were neglected and remained untouched as no economic or class related criteria was adopted. Women were considered a welfare category.

The Second Five Year Plan (1956-61): The Second Five Year Plan emphasized the need to provide greater education opportunities to girls. It was observed that special efforts were needed to educate parents on the importance of girls' education and the relate the same to the needs of the girls. Shortage of women teachers was seen as an impediment. The Plan recommended besides co-education, separate schools for girls and multiple shifts as an interim measure. Women teachers were to be provided housing facilities in villages.

The main features of the educational plan were to give more emphasis on basic education (Gandhian model), expand elementary education and diversify secondary education and above all reduce male female disparities in literacy. Special schemes for girls to take up different occupations such as nursing, health visitors, teachers and so on were recommended. In addition to the national extension and community development programmes, establishment of fundamental education centers for training social education organizers were recommended. In 1957-58, a Centrally Sponsored scheme was introduced to accelerate the enrolment of girls in primary schools. States were given assistance for one or more of the following schemes:

- (i) free accommodation for women teachers in rural areas
- (ii) appointment of school mothers
- (iii) condensed courses for adult women
- (iv) stipends for women for teachers training
- (v) refresher courses
- (vi) stipends for high school students to take up teaching
- (vii) attendance scholarships
- (viii) exemption from tuition fees
- (ix) construction of hostels for secondary schools for girls

In 1960-61, there were 301,007 women on rolls in adult education centers. A proposal to set up an institute for training women in organization, administration and management was under examination (still is in 1991).

With regard to girls' education, serious shortfalls were noticed at the secondary stage, where only 3 % of the 12 million girls in the age group 14-17 years were attending schools. The number of high schools for girls was expected to go up from 1500 to 1700 by the end of the plan period to enable girls to take up careers for which openings existed such as *Gram Sevikas*, nurses, health visitors, teachers etc. special scholarships were recommended. Nearly two thirds of the girls were studying in co-educational institutions.

At the elementary stage, the number of girls receiving instruction increased from 7.64 million to 11.4 million in classes I-V, and from 0.69 million to 1.63 million during the Second Plan. Girls enrolment ration at the primary stage reached only 41.4 % and 6.9 % at the upper primary level. The UEE goal was too distant.

The Second Five Year Plan (1956-60) continued the welfare approach but recognized the need to organize women as workers. Social prejudices against women and their disabilities were noted. Women were to be protected against injurious work and provided with maternity benefits and crèches and laws passed to this effect. The principle of equal pay equal work was recognized and women it was felt should be given training to compete for higher jobs. The Report of the Committee on Women's Education made a substantial impact.

The Third Five Year Plan (1961-66). The Third Five Year Plan pinpointed women's education and training as a major welfare strategy. In social welfare, the largest share was provided for expanding rural welfare services and starting of condensed courses of education for out of school women and girls. The health programmes concentrated on provision of maternal and child welfare services, health

education and family planning. School enrolments continued to show wide male-female disparities as also the gaps in male-female literacy rates. The male literacy rate was found to be 34 %, nearly three times higher than the female literacy of 12.8 %. The additional enrolment of boys in schools was to the tune of 13.2 % million, the corresponding increase for girls was only 6.8 million. Hence the most important objectives in the Third Plan *was to expand facilities for girls at various stages*.

During the Third Plan Period, enrolment ratio of girls went up from 41.4 % to 61.6 % at the primary stage and from 11.3 % to 16.5 % at the upper primary stage. The number of girls receiving instruction increased from 11.4 million to 16.52 million at the primary level and from 1.63 million to 2.5 million at the upper primary level. Of the total resources available under plan Rupees 1750 million were earmarked for girls' education out of which Rupees 1140 million was allotted to education of girls at the primary and the middle stages. Provision was also made to fund some special schemes to support the general programmes of girls' education.

The recommendations contained in the report of the National Committee on Women's Education were seen as the guidelines. Special emphasis was laid on creating suitable conditions for *encouraging parents to send their daughters to schools, educating public opinion, increasing the number of women teachers from rural areas who could take up teaching and inducing women from urban areas to accept posts as teachers in rural schools*. It was proposed to evaluate carefully from year to year the progress made in implementing the programmed for girls' education and to take such further measures as might be needed for realizing the target set for the Third Plan. It was also suggested that scholarships should be awarded to promising students in need of assistance, and aid to girls at the higher stages in education should be continued. *To help overcome the inadequate supply of science and women teachers, it was proposed to select promising students at the post-matriculation stage and assist them with scholarships and stipends through the entire period of training. In backward areas the educational institutions were to be located with easy walking distance from the home of every child.* Need was emphasized to mobilize local community efforts for organization of enrolment drives to persuade parents to send girls to schools. Construction of school buildings, provision of additional equipment and furniture for schools and mid-day meals and free uniforms for poorer children were noted as essential requirements. *Promising female students at the post-secondary stage were to be assisted with scholarships and stipends to train as teachers in order to meet the shortfall of teachers. In return, they were to be under an obligation to serve for a prescribed period.*

During the Third Plan period 100 % increase in number of girls in Classes IX-X as the percentage of girls in that age group attending school was only 6.9 % compared to 23.7 % of boys. By the plan end close to a million girls were enrolled at secondary stage out of a total of 4.56 million students.

Keeping in view, the needs of the out-of-school girls and large number of women who had missed schooling, the Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB) implemented the Scheme of Condensed courses for Adult Women. More than 600 courses were sanctioned for adult women during the Third Plan.

There was plan holiday during 1967 and 1968, when the country had annual plans instead of five-year plans. In 1968-69, there were 20.57 million girls among 55.49 million children enrolled in primary classes. At the upper primary level out of the total of 12.27 million children enrolled, 3.51 million were girls. The enrolment ratio of girls at the primary stage reached 58.5 % but was only 18.8 % at the middle stage.

The Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-74) The Fourth Five Year Plan continued emphasis on women's education and followed the basic policy to improve women's welfare within the unit of family. The mother role received heightened attention. Immunization of children and supplementary feeding for children and expectant and nursing mother was started. During the Fourth Five Year Plan (69-74) sustained efforts were made to extend education of girls and improve their enrolments at all stages. By the end of the Fourth Plan, there were 64.10 million children enrolled in primary stage of whom 24.50 million were girls. At the upper primary level, girls accounted for 4.6 million of the total 15.30 million students on rolls. Girls' enrolment ratio of the relevant age group was 66 in Classes I-V and only 22 in Classes VI-VIII.

The Fifth Five Year Plan (1975-79) In the Fifth Five Year Plan very high priority was given to free and compulsory education for all children up to the age of 14 years in pursuance of the Constitutional Directive. To that effect every state introduced free education for children in the age group 6-11 years.

The progress was not uniform in all States. It was realized that the target of UPE cannot be achieved without bringing back the drop-out especially in the case of girls. The problem of inadequate availability of women teachers was to be tackled by giving scholarships to local girls to complete their education and training for a teaching career and organization of condensed courses and correspondence courses for the less educated women and girls. The outlay for special programmes for education of girls was to be stepped up. Along with expansion, it was viewed that the curriculum should also meet the special needs of girls as housewives and as career women. Emphasis was laid on increasing girls enrolment in schools by providing various incentives. Simultaneously National Adult Education Programme and Integrated Child Development Services received attention and programme of pre-school education were given special emphasis. It was estimated in 1978-79 that two thirds of the non-enrolled children in the 6-14 age group were girls and three fourths of the enrolled children were in nine states.

In the age group 6-11 years only 66 % girls were enrolled as compared to 100.2 % boys, girls accounting for two thirds of the enrolled boys. In the age group 11-14, the number of girls were half that of boys with 28 % girls enrolled as compared to 52 % boys.

The Fifth Five Year Plan emphasized the need to train women in need of income and protection. Functional literacy was to equip women with skills and knowledge to perform the function of a housewife to include child care, nutrition, health care, home economics etc.

A major landmark of the Fifth Plan period was the adoption of the National Policy Resolution on the Child in India in 1974 which drew attention of the nation to value of the children and develop further this valuable resource by adequate provision of education, health and nutrition for all children.

The Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85) • The Sixth Five Year Plan stressed upon women's role in development for the first time and started seeing women as special target groups for removal of poverty and unemployment and special incentives were given to the States to promote female literacy and enrolments. The role of women in agriculture and development and village level organizations received attention. The marginality of attention and services received by women in rural and agricultural development programmes, the special constraints that obstruct their access to available assistance and services, their low productivity and narrow range of occupations available to them, low level of participation in decision making, lack of finance and guidance, inadequate monitoring of women's participation, wage discrimination, low health and nutritional status, and ineffective application of science and technology for removing their drudgery, were seen as major barriers to rural women's development as whole.

The major thrust of the Sixth Plan was on economic upliftment of women through greater opportunities for salaried, self and wage employment. Appropriate technologies, services and public policies were to be introduced for the same as also technological services included imparting new skills and upgrading existing skills. The services package paid attention to training, credit needs and to marketing. The public policy package concentrated on measures in the area of ownership rights, enforcement of wage law and employment impact assessment with reference to women's employment in development projects. Assistance was given to women's organizations.

Measures to improve the health and nutritional status was thought to be made more effective, as it was felt that programme relating to education, health, nutrition and employment would go a long way in removing social disabilities facing women and the female child.

Nearly 73 percent of the total non-enrolled children in the 6-11 years age group were girls. In the age group 11-14 years only 38 per cent of girls had been enrolled for formal education. The drop-out rate for girls continued to be high at both elementary and secondary levels. To boost enrolment in primary classes, early childhood education centers (ECCE) for children in 3-6 years age group were set up as adjuncts to primary schools for the first time in this plan for the rural and backward areas. These centers also provided crèche facilities for younger siblings of girls attending primary schools. Besides this previous incentives continued to be given to girls.

As in the previous plan, removal of poverty was the foremost objective besides stepping up the growth of the economy, strengthening the impulses of modernization, achieving economic and technological self-reliance, improving the quality of life, reducing regional inequalities, promoting the active

protection and improvement of ecological and environmental assets and promoting the active protection the active involvement of all sections of people in the process of development through appropriate education

The emphasis in educational planning shifted from provision of inputs and expansion of facilities in general terms to results to be achieved and tasks to be performed with specific reference to target groups of population, particularly the socially disadvantaged. Based on the Fourth Educational survey the Plan emphasized that achieving elementary education was a major problem not due to non-availability of schools but socio-economic reasons particularly in the rural areas, concerted efforts were called for to reach out to the women, SC/ST and other weaker segments of society. It was felt that there was need to transform the system of education qualitatively in terms of its value content, standards and relevance to life. Elementary education in the backward states needed to be given a serious consideration. For the first time there was a chapter on Women and Development as there was a steady decline in the sex ratio and women lagged behind in almost all sectors. The plan viewed the family as a unit of development, wherein awareness generation on women's issues and problem was stressed. It was pointed out that the status of women was related to their economic independence. To raise this, voluntary agencies and Mahila Mandals were identified as crucial agencies. Special cells were to be created for increasing women's participation through wage and self-employment for boosting the education of women. Girls hostels were to be increased, higher rates of scholarships given, and co-education polytechnics encouraged.

The Sixth Five Year Plan stated that the programme of UEE would be specially directed toward higher enrolment and retention of girls in schools. This would require the following

- (i) balwadies / crèches attached to schools to free girls from sibling care and attend school,
- (ii) income generating work for girls outside the schools hours for supplementing the family income
- (iii) expansion of incentive scheme such as free uniforms, textbooks mid-day meals etc,
- (iv) appointment of women teachers where necessary in rural areas to encourage girls education,
- (v) strengthening of science teaching in girls schools and colleges for enabling them to achieve greater participation in science

Seen as a related area of concern, expansion of functional literacy programme especially in low female literacy areas was envisaged. Special non formal education programmes for girls were started.

Vigorous efforts were made to improve girls enrolment in the nine educationally backward states through centrally sponsored schemes, such as 90 % subsidy for non-formal education centers exclusively for girls, appointment of women teacher in primary schools and awards to states for excellent performance in primary education of girls and female literacy.

By the end of the Sixth Plan, there were a total of 84 million children enrolled in Classes I-V, of these 33 million were girls. The percentage of children in the age group who were enrolled at the primary stage was 94.1 %, the enrolment ratio for girls being 76.7 % at this level. At the upper primary stage (Classes VI-VIII), there were a total of 26 million children enrolled, of whom 9 million were girls, the enrolment ratio of girls being 36 % compared to 51 % for total children.

During the Sixth Plan, a large number of measures were undertaken to alleviate the conditions of the poverty groups especially those residing in rural areas. Women were recognized as a special target group for removal of poverty and unemployment. Women's role in agriculture and the need for their participation in village level organization was focused upon. This was the time when the major national rural development programme was launched. The Integrated Rural Development Programme which was started in 1978-79, soon saw the need to treat women with special consideration as often the benefits of the various IRDP schemes were cornered by males. In 1981, Development of Women and Child in Rural Areas (DWCRA) was launched as a sub scheme of the IRDP. DWCRA organizes women's groups called Mahila Mandals for collective action to know and demand their rights and dues from the society.

The Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90) : The Seventh Five Year Plan operationalised the concern for equity and empowerment articulated by the International Decade for Women. For the first time the emphasis was qualitative focusing on inculcating confidence among women, generation of awareness and training them for economic activity and employment. The plan stressed the need for mainstreaming and integrating women into society and thus into national development viewing them as a crucial human resource.

The plan envisaged an integrated multi-disciplinary approach to women's development comprising education, health, nutrition, child services, employment, legal awareness etc. It was in 1985 that the Government of India constituted a separate Department in the Ministry of Human Resource Development which funds the CSWB that the developmental and welfare programmes for women. A number of these programmes were put on the ground in the Sixth and Seventh Five Year Plan periods—viz., Women's Development Corporations, Support to Training and Employment Programme (STEP), Training-cum-Production Centres for Women, Camps for Rural and Poor Women, Short Stay Homes, Family counselling Centres, Working Women's Hostels and many others.

Women specific programmes implemented by Department of Women and Child Development are geared towards—

- (i) strengthening and improving women's work and employment in agriculture, animal husbandry, dairying, fisheries, handlooms, handicrafts, sericulture and Khadi and Village Industries,
- (ii) economic rehabilitation of women from the weaker sections of society through training and employment,
- (iii) better employment avenues for women to bring them into the mainstream of national development,
- (iv) provision of short stay homes for women in difficulties, together with support services of counselling, medical care, guidance and treatment and development of skills,
- (v) provision of preventive and rehabilitative services to women and children who are victims of atrocities and exploitation.

The thrust of all these programmes is two-pronged. Firstly, it is specific in the sense that certain programmes cater to women only as beneficiaries, while secondly there are other programmes that help in mainstreaming and integrating them into society.

Currently, in addition to the formal system of education there are 45 schemes of non-formal education and skill training for out-of-school children. These are run by eight central ministries, viz., education, health, labour, agriculture, textiles, food & civil supplies, science and technology and industries. All 45 schemes are open to women, sixteen are exclusively for women. Of the ten schemes initiated during the Sixth and Seventh Plan Period, seven are meant for women only. There are seven schemes for preparation of women development functionaries in the areas of health, education and child development and social welfare. There is a unique scheme for creating awareness among rural poor women regarding their rights and needs and for helping them to work towards the same.

The Mahila Samakhya project of the Department of Education of Ministry of Human Resource Development is another programme which sees concretization and mobilization of women for group action as a major educational programme in itself and as a precursor to development girls' education and adult female literacy is. There are at least two schemes that are aimed at the development of entrepreneurship among women. Several schemes have the elements of credit and marketing know-how in addition to skill development and production management. Application of science and technology is being encouraged to reduce the drudgery of rural women.

In certain programmes like the Training of Rural Youth in Self-Employment (TRYSEM) of the IRDP, a minimum of 33 % seats were to be filled up by women trainees. During the Seventh Plan Period, women exceeded this quota which has now been revised upwards to 40 % w.e.f. 1st April, 1991. The Khadi Village Industries Commission (KVIC) which runs over 90 vocational courses aimed at production of Khadi and 26 village industries has a special mandate to protect women's employment. Nearly half of the KVIC workers are women but very few women are employed in

industries, mostly they are piece wage workers. The gender stereotyping of courses of non-formal education and training schemes continues, as a rule with only a few attempts at breaking new grounds in non-traditional occupations by women in some programmes.

The Seventh Plan views women, themselves and not the family as the basic unit of development. Considering the highly inequitable intra household distribution of resources and power even in basics like food and health this appears to be a better approach. Also, the right of women to be beneficiaries of all governmental schemes as individuals is recognized. There is a significant beginning towards making rural women's work visible through researches. The emphasis is not only on provision of credit and marketing and technology, but, on generating awareness among women about their rights and privileges and building their self confidence. The state has sponsored the movement to organize rural women for action leading to better control of their lives and as agents of change. DWCRA started in 1981, has received further fillip in the Seventh Plan. For improving of access of women to resources and decision making within the family, joint pattas (deeds of ownership) of land and property have been advocated. (Only Assam, Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Goa, Daman and Diu have so far ratified this policy).

Specifically, in education, the Seventh Plan laid stress on enrolment and retention of girls at the elementary stage, especially those belonging to rural areas, the Scheduled Castes, the Scheduled Tribes and other weaker sections. Voluntary agencies were encouraged to run early childhood education centers as adjuncts of primary and middle schools. There was further expansion of the ICDS programmes to cover all indigent groups of population especially those living in rural areas. The ICDS is seen as providing school readiness among pre-schools and early stimulation, nutrition and health care to children in the age group 0-3 years. Besides, ICDS centers and Anganwadies, also provide the necessary support structure to relieve school age girls from sibling care. Further, promotion of vocational and technical education for girls was boosted by setting up more women's polytechnics and by opening all technical institutions to women. Finally, the Seventh Plan gave high importance to District Level Planning and decentralized implementation through community involvement for delivering basic education programmes of UEE and Adult Education.

The Eighth Five Year Plan (1990-95) - The Eighth Five Year Plan emphasized the need for human development, of which human resource development is a necessary pre-requisite. Education is the catalytic factor which leads to human resource development. Universalization of elementary education (UEE), eradication of illiteracy in the age group 15-35 years and strengthening of vocational education so as to relate it to the emerging needs in the urban and rural settings were the major thrust areas of the Eighth Plan. The need for according the highest priority to UEE is, therefore well-established. Within the overall school-age population, the focus would be on girls, who account for two-thirds of target, and among adults the focus would be on women's literacy which has a beneficial impact on children's literacy as well as other national objectives like population control and family welfare. However, special attention would be paid to increase retention, improvement of quality, specification of minimum levels of learning (MLL) and their attainment by the learners. In regard to literacy, the emphasis would be on sustainability of literacy skills gained and on the achievement of goals of remediation, continuation and application of skills to actual living and working conditions.

The main strategy for achieving the targets would be

- i) Adoption of the decentralized approach to educational planning and management at all levels through Panchayat Raj Institutions,
- ii) Combining this approach with a convergence model of rural development involving integrated utilization of all possible resources available at Panchayat, Block and District level for activities relating to elementary education / literacy, child care/ development, women's socio-economic empowerment and rural health programmes,
- iii) Large scale participation of voluntary agencies, and
- iv) Development of innovative and cost-effective complementary programmes including open learning system (OLS) supported by district education techniques.

The formal school system will be expanded and improved. At present elementary education is considered a responsibility of State and local bodies. However, there is scope for providing part time non-formalized education to a large number of learners who are not able to avail of the facility of

formal full – time school or non – formal education centers. A well – defined open learning system will be developed with a network educational opportunities relevant to the needs and circumstances of learners, especially girls, women, SCs / STs and the poor, the unemployed and the un- trained. The major thrust of open learning system would be on the acquisition of life skills, vocational skills, directly contributing to productivity and inculcation of habits of self- learning. Special efforts will be made to increase enrolment rates and improve participation rates at the upper primary stage especially in respect of girls. Besides expansion of school facilities, there will be need to improve the quality of education by providing existing schools with sufficient facilities. Therefore, the Operation Blackboard scheme will not only be continued and completed during the Eighth Plan in relation to primary schools but also extended to upper primary schools so that every class has a classroom and a teacher. In order to expedite universalisation of elementary education and increase the enrolment of girls, the ratio between primary and upper primary schools would be brought down from the existing 1.4 to at least 1.3 with the ultimate aim of 1.2.

Apart from expanding Tribal Sub – Plan (TSP) and Special Component Plan (SCP), special measures are required for promotion of education of SCs / STs. Certain sub – castes, tribes and communities need particular attention because literacy rates among them are extremely low. The existing scheme of residential ashram schools will be expanded to cover classes from I to X and scholarship schemes for talented children at the secondary level would be expanded. This will be supplemented by the scheme of voluntary schools wherever possible. Suitable incentives will be provided to all educationally backward sections of the society, particularly in rural areas. Hill and desert districts, remote and inaccessible areas and islands will be provided adequate institutional infrastructure. Greater attention will be paid to the educationally backward minorities keeping in view the recommendations of the Empowered Committee on Minority Education (1991).

A system of incentives to overcome social, economic and educational handicaps, which lead to high incidence of dropout has been an integral part of educational planning for universalisation since long. A recent evaluation of these schemes has made a positive assessment but has made the need for paying adequate attention to management aspects of the system so that they yield the desired results. A comprehensive package of incentives and support services for girls, SCs, STs and children of the economically weaker sections of society will be provided. The emphasis of facilities that have special relevance for retention of girls such as establishment of Day Care centers for pre school children and infants, provision of free uniforms, textbooks and stationery, attendance allowance and co-ordination of support services such as drinking water, folder and fuel to release children, especially girls as well as women from related domestic work. A National Evaluation Organisation (NEO) will be set up to undertake assessment of students learning on national scale on a sample basis to implement the strategy of Minimum Level of learning (MLL).

The Ninth Five Year Plan

The Ninth Five Year Plan sees education as the most crucial investment in human development by raising the quality of life by influencing improvement health, hygiene, demographic profile and productivity. The Prime Minister Special Action plan (SAP) identified an expansion and improvement of social infrastructure in the field of education. The National Agenda for Governance stands committed to total eradication of illiteracy, implementing the Constitutional promises of free and compulsory education for all children up to the age fourteen and further providing equal access and opportunity of educational standards at all levels by increasing the spending on education up to 6 % of the G D P.

Education of girls and women's empowerment are seen as the drive arm of national development and an important yardstick of human development within the framework of human rights and human dignity. Special strategies have been listed under various heads in the Plan document such as in the sections on Education, Empowerment of Women and Development of Children.

Education

(3 3)

Elementary Education -

Thrust Areas

- Providing primary education is a universal basic service , declaring it be a fundamental right for children up to the age of fourteen years
- Legal embargo on child labour
- Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) are seen as major strategies for UEE
- Social mobilisation
- Heightened awareness of human rights, violations in respect of women and persons from disadvantaged sections of society
- Implementation of the provisions of Persons with Disabilities Action of 1995
- Revised Alternative Education for the large chunk of out of school children who are neither in school nor in identifiable child labour
- The National and State Open Schools will try to meet the educational needs of for those who are unable to enrol in the formal system
- The Plan continues emphasis on reduction of regional, inter group and gender disparities

Secondary Education -

Thrust Areas

- Regulate expansion by creating new facilities for girls , other deprived sections and children in rural areas at the secondary levels in order to reduce wide rural urban and gender disparities in educational access
- Revision of curricula to relate the same to work opportunities , through pre vocational training at the secondary stage and vocationalisation of general higher secondary education
- Provision of scholarships, hostels and other incentives for facilitating the participation of girls
- Vocationalisation after ten years of schooling and improvement in the quality of education particularly, Science, Mathematics and Computer Literacy through with support The potential of Open learning system would be exploited for offering a variety of courses
- In remote and tribal areas more hostel facilities would be created for girls in Secondary Schools Additional hostel facilities will be provided to girls particularly in Tribal and

Remote areas so that attendance rate of girls will improves MHRD will co-ordinate this programme with those of the Ministry of Welfare

University and Higher Education -

Thrust Areas

- The priority for the Ninth plan is to be on the expansion on education largely in the unserved areas with the focus on improving the coverage of women and disadvantaged groups by using financial assistance as a leverage

Women's Empowerment -

Thrust Areas

- The National Agenda for Governance also states " We will institute plans for providing free education for girls up to college level i.e under – graduate level including professional courses would be made free"
- During the Ninth Plan period, an adequate provision will be made for this purpose On a long term basis the financial implications of making education free for girls up to the graduation level will be worked out in close collaboration with State and local governments in so far as these relate to the Department of Education
- The concept of free education is to be defined explicitly in terms of its coverage The components could be tuition fees, basic textbooks, maintenance expenditure in hostels and library books

Action Plan

(a) Financial Requirements The financial requirements for implementation of the concept of free education to girls up to college level will be worked out by the Ministry of Human Development (MHRD)

(b) New scheme A new scheme called " Free Education for Girls " will be devised and implemented in a time bound manner

Empowerment of Women and Development of Children (3.8)

Thrust Areas

Empowerment of women is one of the nine primary objective of the Ninth Plan. Every effort will be made to create an enabling environment where women can freely exercise their rights both within and outside home, as equal partners along with men. Major objectives will be empowering women as the agents of social change. Education being the most powerful instrument for empowering women, assumes special priority in the Ninth Plan. Efforts in the Ninth Plan will, therefore, be target – oriented in fulfilling the goal of “ Education for Women’s Equality ” as laid down in the National Policy on Education (NPE), 1986 and revised in 1992. Towards this

- Special attention will be paid to the already identified low female literacy pockets and to the women and the girl children belonging to the socially disadvantaged groups viz SC, STs, OBCs, Minorities, Disabled etc as they still lag behind the rest of the population with the lowest literacy rates ranging between 5 and 10 per cent, while the national average of female literacy stands at 39.3 % in 1991,
- While Universal Primary Education continues to be a priority area in the Ninth Plan, all out efforts will be made to ensure both easy and equal access to education for women and girls through the commitments of the Special Action Plan (1988) to achieve total eradication of illiteracy,
- Besides, steps will be initiated to eliminate gender discrimination in the admissions, remove gender bias and stereo – types in the curricula, textbooks and learning material,
- Create a gender – sensitive educational system, promote gender sensitisation of teachers on a regular basis, appoint more women teachers at primary level (at least 50 %) ,
- Reduce drop – out rates and increase enrolment and retention rates of girls children through special incentives like free supply of uniforms and textbooks , mid day meals , scholarships, flexible school timings and attached hostels and crèches ,
- Improve the quality of education , facilitating life – long learning through the correspondence courses, distance learning and self – study programmes for women and girls who fall out of the formal system of schooling.
- The special package announced for the Girl Child on 15 August , 1997 also revolves around the very same theme of educating and empowering the girl child living below the poverty line with adequate financial support till she completes higher secondary education or gets equipped with necessary skills to earn her livelihood
- Vocationalisation of secondary education and vocational training for women will receive high priority as one of the ultimate goals of empowering women is to make them economically independent and self – reliant. In this context , the existing network of National Vocational Training Centre (NVTC), Regional Vocational Training Centres (RVTCs), Pre – Vocational Training Centres (PVTCs), Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) and Crafty Training Centres (CTCs) will be further strengthened with necessary improvements in the infra – structural facilities for introduction of up – coming trades, hostels etc. Efforts will also be made to encourage eligible women / girls with suitable incentives to join vocational education / training so that the facilities available at these exclusive Training Institutions will be utilised optimally. Introduction of part – time and short – time courses will also be considered to meet the special needs and timings of working women / girls. Efforts will be made to encourage women and girls with necessary incentives to opt for the emerging areas of technical education such as electronics , computer systems and applications, bio – engineering, bio – technology , food processing, fabric designing, beauty culture, communications, media etc, which have high employment
- Further, to encourage more and more girls to enter into the mainstream of higher education and thus ensure fulfilment of the commitment of ‘ Education for Women’s Equality ’, the

Ninth Plan envisages to institute plans for providing free education for girls up to college levels, including professional courses , so as to better empower women

- To universalise the on – going supplementary feeding programme – Special Nutrition Programme (SNP) and Mid Day Meals (MDM)
- The Ninth Plan accords high priority to research and Development (R&D) for exploitation of alternative sources of energy for use in women related household activities To undertake R&D activities, more and more girls will be encouraged to get into science stream with attractive incentives ensure easy and equal access to education for women and girls through the commitments of the Special Action Plan of 1998

Children

As in the past , the young child will continue to be places first on the country's development agenda with a special focus on the girl child To this effect , the Ninth Plan reaffirms its priority for the development of early childhood as an investment in country's human resource development While the first six years are acknowledged as critical for the development of children , greater stress will be laid on reaching the younger children below 2 years

The two National Plans of Action – one for Children and other exclusively for the Girl Child adopted in 1992, also fall very much within the guiding principles underlining the importance of ' Survival , Protection and Development ' Efforts in the Ninth Plan will, therefore, be made to expedite effective implementation and achievement of the goals set in the two Plans of Action besides instituting a ' National Charter for Children' to ensure that no child remains illiterate , hungry or lacks medical care The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, ratified by our country in 1992 , also provides a strong base for initiating necessary – legal and other developmental measures for protection of the rights of the child Major objectives will be to place the Young Child at the top of the Country's Developmental Agenda with a Special Focus on the Girl Child , and to re-affirm its priority for the development of early childhood services as an investment in Country's Human Resource Development Towards this

- To view girl's education as a major intervention for breaking the vicious inter – generational cycle of gender and socio – economic disadvantages
- To expand the support services of crèche / day care services and to develop linkages between the primary schools and of the child care services to promote educational opportunities for the Girl Child
- To widen the scope and the spectrum of child development services with necessary interventions related to empowerment of women and children , families and communities through effective convergence and coordination of various sectoral efforts and services
- To universalise ICDS as the mainstay of the Ninth Plan for promoting the over-all development of the young children especially the Girl Child and the mothers all over the country
- To expand the scheme of Adolescent Girls in preparation for their productive and re – productive roles as confident individuals not only in family building but also in nation building
- To promote the nutritional status of the mother and the child by improving the dietary intake through a change in the feeding practices and intra – family food distribution
- To strengthen the early joyful period of play and learning in the young child's life and to ensure a harmonious transition from the family environment to the primary school

Current Policies and Programmes

The current national policies / programmes and strategies are directed at provision of quality education to all to include universal elementary education for children in the age group 6-14 years, continued special attention to children from the historically disadvantaged groups the SC, the ST, educationally backward minorities and children with special needs, vocationalization and extending secondary and higher education to all areas through the formal schools and colleges and through distance education and implementing Education for Women's Equality as a non negotiable priority area. The nation has one foot in the Information age and the other in fighting the curse of illiteracy and poverty of millions.

Despite large scale expansion of the educational system, the goal of universal elementary education of eight years remains elusive on account of the rank poverty of 270 million Indians (Economic Survey, 2001) and half our population surviving on \$ 1 a day. The proverbial battle has been to get the children from the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, religious and linguistic minorities and other backward castes and groups into the school and to help them complete 5 to 8 years of education. It is estimated that 70-80 % children in this age group are attending school (National Health and Family Survey, 1998-99 and the National sample Survey, 1997).

Initiatives taken by the government have resulted in significant progress in women's education. Various centrally sponsored schemes have been formulated to strengthen school education with special inputs into Science Education, Vocational Education, Culture, Values, Computer literacy and study. Educational Technology and education of children with disabilities. These schemes have benefited girl students in general. In addition there are schemes focussed on providing better facilities to girl students to enable them to pursue their education.

Premier interventions made in the elementary education sector since the national Policy on Education 1986 (revised in 1992). Several schemes and programmes were launched to achieve the goal of Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE). The scheme of Operation Blackboard (OB), Teacher Education reforms, National Programme for Nutritional Support for Primary Education, Non Formal Education, *Mahila Samakhya*, State specific projects in Bihar, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, and Andhra Pradesh, and the District Primary Education Programme in 248 low female literacy districts of 18 states are important steps towards this among others.

Operation Blackboard besides creating minimum facilities of classrooms, teachers and teaching learning equipment, has paid special emphasis to recruit more and more women among the additional teachers being provided under the scheme. This has been done with the explicit purpose of providing women teachers for rural schools which are not only under staffed but have very low presence of female teachers. Shortage of women teachers in rural areas is seen as a negative factor for the growth of girls' education in rural communities.

The National Programme of Nutritional Support for Primary education known as Mid-day Meal scheme was launched in 1995. Under the programme the scheme is to provide free of cost food grains to children at the rate of either 100 grams per school day per student in states / UTs where cooked meal is provided or three kilograms per month per child where food grains are being distributed subject to minimum 80 % of attendance. 90% of the primary schools are now covered under the programme. This programme has definitely increased enrolments among the very poor sections of our society.

The former Non Formal Education Scheme has been restructured recently as The Education Guarantee Scheme and the scheme of Alternative and Innovative Education to allow more flexibility and operationally more proactive. The Education Guarantee Scheme and the scheme of Alternative and Innovative Education would enable out of school children to return to mainstream school by bridge courses and 'back to school' camps. The revised NFE scheme allows for opening of an EGS centre in habitations not having a primary school within one kilometre and there are at least 100,000 such school less habitations.

The District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) is launched in 1994 as a centrally sponsored scheme providing special thrust to achieve Universalise of Primary Education (UPE). The programme is structured to provide additional inputs over and above the provisions made by the state governments for elementary education. DPEP is contextual and has a marked gender focus. The programme components include construction of classrooms and opening of new schools, opening of non – formal / Alternative schooling centres, appointment of new teachers, setting up of Block Resource Centres (BRCs), Cluster Resource Centres (CRCs), teacher training, development of teaching learning materials, research based interventions, special interventions for education of girls, Scheduled Caste children, Scheduled Tribe children, disabled children etc. The programme has proved the value of decentralised planning to a more meaningful involvement of the community. Presently 248 districts in 18 states have been covered under the programme. DPEP has added 10,000 new formal schools and 15,000 are in the pipeline. Special care has been taken to provide toilets for girls. 53,000 Alternative Schooling Centres of various kinds and about 16,000 summer schools have been set up so far. Enrolment in primary classes increased by about 20 lakh (13 lakh in formal schools and 6.3 lakh in alternative modes between 1995-96 and 1999-2000 in phase I districts and 186.9 lakh in 1998-99 to 198.2 lakh in 1999-2000 in phase II and III districts. The overall GER in phase I districts increased from 83.9 % in 1995-96 to 95.1 % in 1999-2000. Gender gap in enrolment is closing rapidly.

The *Lok Jumbish* was launched in Rajasthan in 1992 to achieve education for all through people's mobilisation and their participation. It shows the impact of micro planning and school mapping by the concerned communities, men and women, more importantly, on the universalisation of primary education. A diversity of gender interventions is an important feature of *Lok Jumbish* in the form of *Sahaj Shiksha*, *Prehar Pathshala*, *Balika Shiksha*, *Mahila Shiksha Kendras*, *Adhyapika Manch*, one to one ratio among men and women in the administrative structures and two women to one man at the lowest levels. These interventions have implications for other regions seeing the highly positive impact on girls' educational participation and the rise in female literacy in the LZ blocks in particular. Rajasthan has registered a 20 percentage point increase in female literacy in the population seven years and above. The LZ and other promotional schemes of the Rajasthan Government appear to have given the desired results.

The forerunner to *Lok Jumbish*, *Shiksha Karmi* project has been a tremendous success in mobilising the local youth with the fervour of its selfless ideology for serving primary schools that were suffering on account of teacher absenteeism. Evaluation studies on the Total Literacy Campaigns (where women accounted for two thirds of the learners) point to the highly positive impact of the social mobilisation phase of these campaigns on school enrolments and female literacy that has progressed faster.

Evaluation studies on the Total Literacy Campaigns (where women accounted for two thirds of the learners) point to the highly positive impact of the social mobilisation phase of these campaigns on school enrolments and female literacy that has progressed faster. Over the last three years, IGNOU has registered its presence in 148 low female literacy districts.

Evaluation studies of the *Mahila Samakhya* approach, indicate that this programme has been able to build capacities and self confidence among these women's collectives and has become a vehicle of women's empowerment. The *Mahila Samakhya* is currently working in 8000 villages in 53 districts of Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka, Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Assam. In several states *Mahila Samakhya* has been incorporated in the District Primary Education as a strategy for promoting girls' education and women's empowerment. Such empowerment has had a very positive effect on educational participation of girls. There is indication for further strengthening these linkages with basic education of girls by giving the women's groups a more active role in the management of the school by designing more flexible approaches for their participation.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan

The *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan* (SSA) is the newest effort of the Government of India to universalise elementary education in a mission mode. Literally meaning Education for All Campaign, the SSA aims to provide useful quality education to all children in the age group 6-14 years by the year 2010. In order to signify the nation's priority for elementary education, a National *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan* Mission is being

established with the Prime Minister as its chairperson and the MHRD Minister as its vice chair person. Conceived as a centre state partnership, the states are being requested to establish state level implementation societies with State Chief Minister in the chair. Several states have already implemented this. The SSA does not envisage any separate structures but would only try to bring convergence of all efforts. An attempt will be made to have functional decentralisation right up to the school level and to ensure community participation through the Panchayat Raj Institutions (PRIs) and the Tribal Councils in Scheduled areas, including the Gram Sabha (the Village Council). States would be encouraged to enlarge the accountability framework by involving the NGOs, teachers, activists and women's organisations and groups, among others. Under the SSA, District Elementary Educational Plans will be prepared based on community based habitation plans to ensure, community ownership, accountability and transparency. Education of girls especially those belonging to the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes, will be one of the principal concerns of the SSA. There will be greater focus on the educational participation of children from the SC/ST groups, religious and linguistic minorities, other disadvantaged groups and children with special needs. Efforts will be made to mainstream gender concerns in all the activities. Every activity will be judged in terms of its gender focus. Besides mainstreaming, special efforts like the Mahila Samakhya type of mobilisation and organisation, back to school camps for adolescent girls, large – scale process based constitution of Mahila Samoochs, will also be attempted. The selection criteria takes into account the low female literacy among the scheduled caste and scheduled tribe women.

The SSA recognises the need for special efforts to bring the out of school girls to school. This would require a proper identification of girls who are out of school in the course of micro planning / school mapping. Experiences across the States under Mahila Samakhya and the DPEP have registered the need for a clear perspective on women's issues. The provision for girls' education would have to be situated in the local contexts and interventions designed to suit the specific community needs in this regard.

The objectives of the SSA are

- All children in schools. Education Guarantee Centres, Alternative Schools, 'back to school camps by 2003
- All children complete five years of schooling by 2007
- All children complete eight years of schooling by 2010
- Focus on elementary education of satisfactory quality with emphasis on education for life
- Bridge all gender and social category gaps at primary stage by 2007 and at the elementary stage by 2010 and,
- Universal retention by 2010

Provisions for girls under SSA are

- Special mainstreaming camps for out of school girls under the Alternative and Innovative Education component,
- Provision of process – based community participation with a focus on the participation of women
- Provision of context specific innovative intervention for girls' education – up to Rs. 15 lakh per intervention and up to Rs. 50 lakh in a district in a particular year
- Free textbooks for all girls up to Class VIII,
- At least 50 % of the teachers to be appointed have to be women,
- Community based monitoring, partnership with research and resource institutions and periodic feedback on interventions

Specific strategies are made to cover out of school girls belonging to special groups like child labour, street children, adolescent girls, girls belonging to certain backward communities, children from migrating families etc

The National Literacy Mission set up in 1988 has worked through a volunteer based Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) mode in which effective mobilisation formed the bed rock and majority of the learners were women. The TLC have covered 559 of the total number of 588 districts so far. The continuing education programme is going on in 292 districts and TLC are going on in 172 districts. The focus is on the promotion of literacy and awareness among the women and the SC/ST and backward classes. The dramatic social mobilisation under the TLCs had an enormous impact on other social sectors notably women's empowerment, health, environment awareness. The TLCs have served the cause of promoting equity in society, in redefining gender relations and in questioning caste based social categories.

Scheme of Strengthening of Boarding and Hostel facilities for Girl Students of Secondary and Higher Secondary Schools

Under this scheme initiated in 1993-94, 100% assistance is given to voluntary organisations for providing boarding exclusive facilities to girls studying in high/ higher secondary schools in educationally backward districts, particularly those inhabited predominantly by the SC/ST and educationally backward communities. Till date, about 20,000 girls primarily from rural remote areas and belonging to the disadvantaged groups have benefited from the scheme. The scheme was evaluated in 1998-99 and has since been redesigned to cover girls from Class VI to Class XII and also provision is made for providing building grant to the NGOS who can provide land for building up hostels. Field work and in depth interviews with these girls showed remarkable self confidence, high educational and occupational aspirations and a sense of determination to do well in life.

Navodaya Vidyalayas

Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas (JNV), have been set up in rural areas as pace setting institutions for talented rural children, as well as to ensure greater participation of SC, ST, women and the other less well off sections. These schools have been provided the best of infrastructure and teachers at par with any good private residential school in the country. One third of the seats are reserved for girls in these schools. The percentage of girls in JNVs was 32% in 1997-98.

Kendriya Vidyalas (KV)

Kendriya Vidyalas (KV) have been set up across the country and even in several missions abroad to cater to the children of Central government employees. Thirty percent seats in these KVs are reserved for girls.

National Open School (NOS)

The National open school provides opportunities for continuing education to those who have missed opportunities to complete school through general and vocational courses from primary to higher secondary level. The NOS reaches out to a prioritised clientele which includes school drop outs and marginalised groups, such as rural youth, girls and women, SC and ST etc. The national open school provides subsidies in the form of concessions in admission fee. During the year 1998-99, thirty one thousand one hundred and sixty eight women benefited from such concessions.

Change in Admission Procedures

As per the recommendations contained in the 99th Report of the Rajya Sabha Committee, on petitions on the matter regarding elimination of discrimination against women working in different walks of life and recognition of women as an independent entity, it has been decided to give the option to the child for giving the name of the mother or father or both in the school admission form, application forms and certificates etc.

Janshala (GOI – UN) Programme

Janshala (GOI – UN) programme is a block based programme with emphasis on community participation and decentralisation. It is a collaborative effort of the Government of India and five UN agencies namely UNDP, UNICEF, UNESCO, ILO and UNFPA to provide programme support to the on going efforts towards achieving UEE. The main aim of the programme is to make primary education more accessible and effective especially for girls and children in deprived communities, marginalised groups, SC / ST / Minorities, working children and children with special needs.

UNDP, UNICEF and UNFPA have committed a contribution of \$ 20 million for the programme while UNESCO and ILO have offered technical know how. This is the first ever programme in the world where five UN agencies have collaborated and pooled resources to support an initiative in education.

The programme covers 105 blocks in nine states namely Andhra Pradesh, Jharkhand, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Chattisgarh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh with a total cost of 98.29 crore. The programme is to run for five years from 1998-2000. The technical support is provided by the National Programme Unit (NPMU). At the state level, the programme is implemented through existing structures of educational administration.

Approach and Strategies of the Programme

- i) Strengthening community based mechanisms for school management and support
- ii) Develop government and local body schools as empowered community schools
- iii) Improving teaching methodology for multi grade classrooms through pre and in service teacher development programmes to make them more interactive, child centred and gender sensitive
- iv) Developing a teacher empowerment package for teachers of empowered community schools
- v) Facilitating information exchange on best classroom practices, policy and community participation and
- vi) Applying an integrated social development approach which converges educational and developmental activities and resource inputs by all agencies and ministers

Achievements

- ♦ All states have carried out community mobilisation activities and intensive micro planning exercises with community participation.
- ♦ Village Education Committees (VECs), PTAs and other grass root level structures have been set up in Janshala blocks and they are actively working on school improvement, enrolment and retention of children in primary schools and alternative schools.
- ♦ A large number of alternative schools in small and remote habitations have been started under the programme. Schools have also been set up in urban slums of Jaipur, Hyderabad, Ajmer, Bharatpur, Bhubaneswar, Puri and Lucknow.
- ♦ Teacher training, multigrade teaching, intervention for education of the disabled, setting up of block resource centres (BRCs), cluster resource centres (CRCs), strengthening capacities at state, district and block level are the other important areas of achievement of the programme.

Initiatives taken by University Grants Commission (UGC) to promote higher education

Assistance is provided to universities and colleges for setting up centres and cells for women's studies. UGC has so far assisted 22 universities and 11 colleges to set up women's studies centres and cells to undertake research, develop curricula and organise training and extension work in the areas of gender equality, economic self-reliance of women, girls' education, population issues of human rights and social exploitation.

A scheme "Technology for Women" was introduced in universities 1998-99 for providing financial assistance for the introduction of under-graduate courses in Engineering and Technology.

Distance Education

Keeping in mind the declaration of SAARC Decade of the Girl Child, greater thrust was given to the introduction of open school, distance education system and other innovative educational programmes, especially for girls in rural/remote and slum areas. It has been found that a large number of girls are beneficiaries of correspondence courses.

Technical Education

During the last five decades there has been a phenomenal expansion of technical education facilities in the country since technical education is considered one of the significant components of human resource development. Presently, there are 4,171 Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) with a total enrolment of 440 thousand, out of which 13.4% per cent are girls. Of these ITIs, 214 are exclusively meant for women and others have Women's Wings. In principle, all ITIs are open to women. In 1066 Polytechnics, there are in all 357 thousand students, girls forming only 16.8 per cent of the enrolment (MHRD, 1999-2000). Further, there is one National Institute for Vocational Training (NVTI) and four Regional Vocational Training Institutes (RVTIs) for women exclusively with a total capacity of 1496 students (1995-96 Annual Report of the Ministry of Labour). Women also receive training under the Apprenticeship training scheme of the Ministry of Labour, accounting for 2.6% of the total no. of 272,755 trainees.

Polytechnic Education

Participation of women students in polytechnics was one of the thrust areas under the World Bank assisted Technical Education Projects. These projects were implemented in two phases – Technical Education I and Technical Education II and so far these projects have been implemented in 19 States and UTs. In 1998-99, there was a total of 3,57,174 students enrolled in polytechnic institutes from different states and UTs, of whom 60,104 (16.8%) were girls. All the polytechnic institutes are converted into coeducational polytechnics. Besides, in existing and new women polytechnics, 9535 additional seats have been created for girls and additional hostels to accommodate 7085 girls have been provided.

Community Polytechnics

The scheme of Community Polytechnics was launched in 1978-79 for bringing community rural development through science and technology applications and through skill-oriented non-formal training focused on women, minorities, SC/ST/OBCs and other disadvantaged sections of the society. About 9 lakh persons have been trained in various job-oriented skills. Presently, there are seven degree level institutions and 116 diploma level technical institutions in the country exclusively for women.

Initiatives taken by All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE) to promote technical education

AICTE has constituted a Board on Women Participation in Technical Education for developing strategies to induct more women in technical education. And special incentives like scholarships, stipends etc. are to be provided to attract women in professional education.

Programmes and Schemes for Girls and the Disadvantaged

- **Post Matric Scholarship** This scheme was initiated in 1944 to provide financial assistance to students belonging to SC and ST communities who wants to pursue in post matric courses within the country Under the scheme the Central Government provides 100 % assistance to States / UTs to support such students All children of the same parents are eligible under the scheme
- **National Overseas Scholarship Scheme for SC, ST and other Nomadic Children** Scholarships are given to students for general and technical higher education in the country and National overseas scholarship scheme to support higher and technical education in abroad They also enjoy reservations in all higher education institutions/courses including correspondence courses and job reservations and reservations in legislatures The central government provides 100% assistance to the state As a result of the protective discrimination policies under constitutional provisions, the enrolment of the SC and ST children has considerably improved but their drop out rates are still considerably higher than those for the non - scheduled groups in elementary education both at the primary and the middle stages, i.e , Classes I-VIII Students belonging to SCs, STs families also receive benefits of the assistance provided by the central government for upgradation of merit The central government provide 100% assistance to States/ UTs for arranging remedial and special coaching for SCs and STs students studying in classes IX-XII
- **Book Bank Scheme** Under the Book Bank scheme children belonging to SCs and STs have access to the latest text books for courses like Medicine, Engineering, Agriculture, Polytechnic etc
- **Free Text Books** to encourage primary education among ST children free textbooks are given to ST children in classes I and II,
- **Chatravas Yojna** is supporting the tribal students who are studying in classes VI to X and come from 8 Kms in case of boys and girls from 5 kms Under the scheme boys are given rupees 250 per month and girls rupees 260 per month for 10 months Children of these groups if get admission in urban areas but unable to get accommodation in the hostels The tribal welfare department can support ten to twelve students by providing them the rented accommodation
- **Free ship in the Board Examination Fees** no board examination fees is paid by the ST students in classes X and XII
- **Sports Parishars** to encourage sports among ST children the state government provides scholarships amounting Rupees 210 to boys and Rupees 220 to girls.
- **Pre Matric State Scholarship Scheme** . Under this scheme tribal welfare department gives scholarships to encourage tribal students for continuing their studies from classes VI to X Under the scheme Rupees 200 for boys and Rupees 300 for girls in classes VI-VIII are given annually. In classes IX and X an amount of Rupees 300 for boys and

Rupees 400 for girls has been fixed. There is also a provision of paying Rupees 150 for ten months scholarship to tribal girls in Classes III to V.

- **Pre Matric Scholarship Scheme** This scheme was introduced for the children of those engaged in unclean occupations to pursue education up to matriculation level. Under the scheme Rupees 25 per month is given in Classes I-V, Rupees 40 per month in Classes VI-VIII, Rupees 50 per month in classes IX-X for day scholars and Rupees 200 per month in classes III-VIII, Rupees 250 per month for Classes IX-X is given to the hostlers. In addition to the scholarship an ad hoc grant of Rupees 500 per annum is given to each student. The Central government provides grant on 50:50 basis to the states and 100% to union Territories.
- **Centrally Sponsored Scheme of Girls Hostel for Scheduled Castes** Under this scheme central assistance is provided for the education of Scheduled Tribe girls to the State Governments / UTs with legislatures on 50:50 sharing basis (100% to other UTs) for construction of hostel buildings, extension of hostels for SC girls studying in middle and higher levels of education. Central assistance is also provided through State Governments / UT Administration to the Voluntary Organizations / Non - Governmental Private Organizations only for extension of hostels provided the organization is willing to bear 10% of the total expenditure. The remaining 90% would be shared equally by the Central and State Government.
- **Special Educational Development Programme for the SC Girls** Special educational development programme was launched on a Pilot basis to provide a package of educational inputs through residential schools for SC girls. This scheme covers areas of very low female literacy among Scheduled Castes and also where the tradition and environment are not conducive for their learning. Central Sector Special Educational Development Programme for SC girls belonging to areas of very low SC female literacy rate and who are first generation learners was introduced in 1996-97 on pilot basis to provide a package of educational inputs to promote quality education. Under the scheme grant is given for hostel facilities to SC girls so that they can have congenial environment for studies. An amount of Rupees 11340/- per student is paid to the authorities who run hostel.
- **Centrally Sponsored Scheme of Girls Hostel** the main objective of the scheme is to provide hostel facilities to SC girl students studying in the middle, higher secondary, college and university levels. The central government provides grant for the construction of hostel building on 50:50 basis but the maintenance of the building is the responsibility of the states from their own fund.
- **Girls' Hostel** Central Assistance is provided to the State Governments on 50:50 basis and to UT Administrations on 100% basis for construction of hostel buildings for Scheduled Tribe Girls up to 100 seats studying in middle, high, higher secondary schools, colleges and universities. The expenditure on maintenance of these hostels is being borne by the State Governments / UT administration.
- **Grant - in -Aid to NGOs** The Government of India provides grant - in -aid to Voluntary Organizations working for the welfare of Scheduled Tribes. Under the scheme grant is provided to run balwadis, creches, hostels, schools, training - cum-production centres, provision of medical facilities.

- **Educational Complex in Low Literacy Pockets for Development of Girls' Literacy in Tribal Areas** This scheme was launched in 1993-94 to raise the level of female literacy among Scheduled Tribes in identified districts. The scheme envisages residential educational complexes up to Vth standard for the Scheduled Tribe Girls with a provision for training in crafts vocational education. An incentive of Rupees 30 per month is paid to the parents for sending the girls to these residential schools. Two sets of uniforms per year are provided to the girls. Provision of free board and lodging and medical check up is also made under the scheme. There is also a provision of providing adult education to the parents of these girls. This scheme is implemented through NGOs with cent percent assistance from the Government of India and with the support of the concerned State Governments / UTs in providing land wherever necessary.
- **Schemes for Educationally Backward Minorities** Area Intensive Programme for Educationally Backward Minorities was launched in May, 1993. It seeks to provide basic infrastructure and facilities in areas of concentration of educationally backward minorities, which do not have adequate elementary and secondary education facilities. Under the scheme 100 % financial assistance is given to State Governments and voluntary organizations for establishment of new primary/ upper primary schools and residential schools for girls, strengthening the infrastructure in existing schools, and opening of multi stream residential higher secondary schools for girls where Science, Commerce, Humanities and Vocational courses are taught. The Scheme covers 325 Blocks spread over 13 States and three Union Territories. Modernization of Madrasa Education, Incentive for Teaching/Study of Urdu, Coaching Classes for Weaker Sections are some of the other schemes for the benefit of the Educationally Backward Minorities. As on January, 2000, full /part grants for the construction of buildings for 1,502 primary/ upper primary/ secondary schools have been opened, 13 hostels, six residential higher secondary schools for girls have been started. Upgradation of 38 primary schools to upper primary and high schools to higher secondary schools has been carried out. Construction of toilets in 106 schools and provision of teaching learning materials in 724 primary/ upper primary schools and provision of library books and furniture to 638 schools has been done.

Special measures adopted by MHRD / Department of Education for the education of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

- i Relaxed norms for opening of primary schools,
- ii A primary school within one kilometer walking distance from habitations of 222 people instead of 300 people
- iii Abolition of tuition fee in government schools up to the upper primary level, some states have made it free up to the senior secondary level for SC/ST students
- iv Provision of incentives like free textbooks, uniforms, school bags etc to these students
- v The major Department of Education schemes like the Universalisation of Elementary Education, Operation Blackboard, District primary Education Programme focus on areas of concentration of SCs and STs. Likewise, community based programmes like Lok Jumbish, Shiksha Karmi, Mahila Samakhya focus on disadvantaged communities and remote under developed

areas Special provisions are made for them to enter the Kendriya Vidyalayas, and the Navodaya Vidyalayas

- vi In higher education also several measures are taken to enable SC and ST students to gain entry into institutions of higher learning including the prestigious IITs, Regional Engineering Colleges, 98 universities including the Central universities through reservation of seats, coaching classes, relaxation of marks and awards of research fellowships
- vii One hundred and forty six low female literacy districts have been identified for focused attention by the Centre and the States for implementation of programmes and schemes. Allocations are made under the Special Component Plan and the Tribal Sub Plan for SCs and STs respectively accounting for 16.33% and 8.01% of the total financial outlay

The National Programme for Nutritional Support to Primary Education (NP-NSPE)

The National Programme for Nutritional Support to Primary Education (NP-NSPE) more popularly known as the Mid-day Meal Scheme (MDM) was launched on 15 August, 1995 for boosting the programme of UEE by meeting the nutritional needs of children with a view to improving their enrolment, attendance and retention. The programme aims to cover all Government, Local Body and Government-Aided schools. Central support is to provide food grains free of cost to children at the rate of 100 gms per school day per student in States where a cooked meal is provided and 3 kg per month per child where food grains are distributed. All States, except Gujarat, Kerala, Orissa, Tamil Nadu, Madhya Pradesh (174 Tribal blocks) and Pondicherry distribute food grains. The Operations research Group, New Delhi who evaluated this programme in 10 States have found that in Assam, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal, the MDM has boosted enrolments, in Gujarat, Haryana, Jammu & Kashmir, Karnataka, Orissa and Rajasthan, it has had a positive impact on attendance and retention.

A study was conducted by the Programme Evaluation Organization (PEO) in order to evaluate the special schemes for girls' education in 1974. This study found that the schemes contributed significantly to increase in enrolment of girls despite several lacunas. Some schemes like mid-day meals, free uniforms, attendance scholarships reduced the economic burden of the parents, others encouraged recruitment and training of women teachers. The study recommended the need for continuation of the scheme in a systematic manner. It was also felt that more publicity was needed to promote greater awareness among rural population about the facilities available.

Central Sector Scheme of Assistance for Strengthening of Boarding and Hostel Facilities for Girl Students of Secondary and Higher Secondary Schools

A centrally sponsored scheme was formulated in 1993-94 to provide assistance to voluntary organizations for strengthening boarding/hostel facilities for girls' students of secondary and higher secondary schools. It is expected that the scheme will have a favorable impact on enrolment, retention and in reducing the drop out rates of girls from rural areas at secondary and senior secondary stage. The Scheme has been in operation for more than five years. In 1998-99, the scheme was evaluated by the Department of Women's Studies, NCERT.

Salient Findings of the Study

- i) The Institutions were committed to promoting education of girls and women's development and were running the hostels well despite severe constraints of funds and

the difficult conditions of their respective locales. Majority of the institutions were located in the interior at a distance of anything between 20 to 120 Km from the district head quarters

- ii) The Scheme has primarily benefitted girls from educationally disadvantaged groups in rural areas to include SC, ST, OBC and minorities, for whom the scheme was intended
- iii) The scheme has had a positive impact on enhancing girl's enrolment, retention, achievement, building of self-image, self-confidence, leadership ability and communication skills. The scheme is very useful in motivating parents and attracting the girls from poverty groups and backward communities in rural areas for taking up secondary and post secondary education. Dropout among the boarders was negligible. It occurred only when the flow of funds stopped and the institution was unable to support these girls
- iv) The Scheme has benefited the students and their academic performance has been satisfactory. The results of boarder exams have been very good. Several institutions have reported that the pass percentage has gone up and some girls are securing first and second division in their board examinations. In several cases, it was reported that the results of the boarders were better than the day scholars
- v) Most of the institutions were in hired accommodation and did not have the requisite facilities like sufficient toilets, common room, reading room, sports facilities, among others. Where the hostel had a proper building and was part of an institution, these facilities were of a high order. The standard of cleanliness was generally good even though the space was insufficient at times. Simplicity marked the life style and the atmosphere of these institutions. And, the management was generally friendly and helpful to the inmates. The girls in these hostels were found to be well disciplined and in good spirit. They displayed self confidence, were articulate and expressed their views freely
- vi) Another positive indicator of the scheme is that it has generated an upsurge and demand for more hostel places going down to class VI for rural girls who live in villages that do not have a middle school
- vii) The educational and occupational aspirations of the hostel inmates were high. They wanted to continue their studies going in for meaningful courses which would get them a job. They were all clear that they will seek employment after their studies. They were keen to become doctors, teachers, nurses, police officers, computer specialists among others. There was a fair amount of accent on co curricular activities, collective self help, group singing and prayer as also on sports and games and public speaking in some institutions. In some places, the hostel girls were found very shy but given little time they would open up. Mostly they could articulate well and of course in all groups, the leaders were self evident
- Viii) Gender Role Perceptions. Gender Role Perceptions of the management, the warden and the girl boarders were very egalitarian. They asserted that girls and boys need equal education, food, health care and medical attention, equal time for play and leisure and equal personal freedom and equal rights in all walks of life. They were confident that assigned the same duties/responsibilities, they would perform all tasks with the same amount of competence as girls do not lack the ability. They all tended to feel that girls can go into all occupations given the necessary education and training as both have the

same intelligence and abilities. They were all for shared family division of labour, decision making and resources including property and land.

Policy Implications of the Study

The Scheme has proved to be very beneficial in accessing secondary /higher secondary educational facilities to girls belonging to rural areas and to the disadvantaged sections including SC, ST, OBC and the Minorities. The Scheme needs serious reconsideration of financial norms, enhanced coverage to include girls from Class VI onwards and improved management.

Non Formal Education Programme

A Central scheme of non formal education for out of school children in the age group 6-14 years was launched in 1979-80 to cover the educationally backward states initially and now includes education of children in urban slums. Under this scheme States and UTs get 60% support for coeducational centers, 90% for all girls' centres. Voluntary agencies get 100% support for organising these NFE centres. At present, there are 2.97 lakh NFE centers with an enrolment of 74.2 lakh children, 2.38 lakh centers sanctioned to the States and Union Territories (of which 1.18 lakh are exclusively for girls), 58,788 centres are run by 816 voluntary agencies. A revised scheme called the Scheme of Alternative and Innovative Education is envisaged as a part of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan to seek community cooperation in providing an elementary education center within one kilometer radius of a school less habitations with quality of education comparable with the formal system.

Chapter III

Achievements and Shortfalls

India inherited a very small system of education comprising a total of 2,18,165 educational institutions in 1947 with an enrolment of 1,77,50,263 out of which 23.4 % were female. Girls formed 26.7% at the primary stage, 18% at the middle stage, 12.8% in high school, 10.4% in universities and colleges of general education and 6.6% in colleges of professional education. Besides the male-female gaps, the system was marked by sharp regional and inter-group disparities. Female literacy rate was 6% compared to 23% for males (Census 1941). Educational opportunities for women have expanded at a fairly accelerated pace after 1950.

Presently, India has the second largest educational system in the world after China with a total enrolment of 191.63 million out of whom 80.54 million (42 %) are girls. Further, girls form 44% of the 113.61 million children enrolled in the primary grades (Classes I-V), 40% of the 42.01 million at the middle stage (Classes VI-VIII), 39 % of the 28.21 million, at the higher / higher secondary stage (Classes IX-XII) and 40 % of the 7.73 million students enrolled in institutions of higher learning (MHRD, 200-2001). Due to the strong gender focus of the BFA initiatives during the 1990s as also the pro-Girl Child, pro-women policies and programmes during this decade, girls' education has progressed and the gender gaps are narrowing. However, the regional, rural-urban and inter-group disparities remain.

Although girls and women continue to trail behind their male counterparts in literacy and enrolments, it would be important to note that given equal opportunities they have proved to be as good if not better than boys. Girls have performed better than boys in the prestigious Central Board of Secondary Education Examination (CBSE) consistently. Even in the year 2000 the pass percentage of girls in Class X was nearly equal to that of boys (65.1% for girls and 65.6% for boys). In Class XII the pass percentage of girls was 81.9 % compared to 72.1% for boys.

The 1990s were a very special period in the evolution of the education of girls in India. The historic national commitment stated in the NPE 1986 to use education for women's equality and empowerment by redesigning curricula, reorienting of all educational personnel, universalisation of basic education and removal of female illiteracy, growth and application of women's studies and encouraging girls to enter vocational and professional education, especially in the non-traditional areas, was pursued in letter and spirit. The states were asked to prepare their plans of action keeping in view the Jomtien declaration and the National Plan of Action prepared for the SAARC Decade of the Girl Child. The last ten years witnessed intense BFA activities with a strong rural and gender focus, additional financial outlays for primary education, innovative girl-child/people-centred projects and mobilization of the communities. The national policies and programmes were designed to reach out to rural and remote areas and to the disadvantaged groups of population. The Eighth and the Ninth Five Year Plans saw education of girls and women's empowerment as the anchor sheet for national development. As such, education of the Girl Child and women's empowerment, inextricably linked as they are, remained the dominant themes for the 1990s and girls and women have made faster progress as we see from the literacy rates and educational participation rates. The year 2001 has been declared as the Year of Women's Empowerment by the government. A special national scheme on Free Education for Girls is on the anvil. The Post-NPE / Jomtien efforts in the area of girls' education appear to be giving positive results, a major yardstick being sharp increase in female literacy levels and greater retention and transition of girls to successive higher levels of education. Much has happened and yet much remains to be done to reach out to the last girl, the last woman in the country. This has resulted in significant progress of education of girls and women in the last fifty years. And, yet, we are only half-way home. Millions of girls and women are receiving the benefits of education and for millions, education is yet to touch their lives.

India has two major successes to report, one, is the faster growth of girls' participation at the elementary stage and more importantly the redesigning of the content and the process of education for promoting gender equality and for creating a girl-friendly educational and social environment. There are two clear axes of promotion of girls' education viz., expansion of educational facilities at all levels of education and following the accepted policy of undifferentiated curricula and reorienting the content and process of education to make it gender-sensitive and a vehicle of women's equality and empowerment.

Female Literacy

Female literacy is considered to be a more sensitive index of social development compared to overall literacy rates. Female literacy is negatively related with fertility rates, population growth rates, infant and child mortality rates, and shows a positive association with female age at marriage, life expectancy, participation in modern sectors of the economy and above all with female enrolments. The impact of the renewed efforts and heavy resource inputs and gender inputs in the area of primary education and the voluntary based Total Literacy Campaigns of the National Literacy Mission (set up in 1988) appears to have given dividends in raising the literacy levels of the population in the age group 7 +.

Table 3.1: Literacy Rates in India by Sex During 1901-2001

Year	Literacy Rates			Percentage points increase for each decade			Male female differentials in percentage points
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1901	5.35	9.83	0.69	-	-	-	9.14
1911	5.92	10.56	1.95	0.57	0.73	0.36	9.15
1921	7.16	12.21	1.81	1.24	1.65	0.76	10.40
1931	9.50	15.59	2.94	2.34	3.38	1.12	13.66
1941	16.10	24.90	7.30	6.60	9.31	4.37	17.60
1951	18.33	27.16	8.86	2.3	2.26	1.56	18.30
1961	28.31	40.40	15.34	9.98	13.24	6.48	25.06
1971	34.45	45.95	21.97	6.14	5.55	6.63	23.98
1981	43.56	56.37	29.75	9.11	10.42	7.78	26.62
1991	52.21	64.13	39.29	8.65	7.76	10.54	24.84
1997	62.00	73.00	50.00	9.79	8.87	10.71	23.00
2001	65.38	75.85	54.16	13.17	11.72	14.87	21.69

Source: Census of India, 2001, Provisional Totals NSSO 53rd Round, 1998

Note: Literacy rates from 1901 to 1941 relate to total population. Figures for 1951 to 1971 relate to population aged five years and above. For the years 1981, 1991, 1997, and 2001 pertain to population aged seven years and above and more.

As is evident from Table 1, female literacy had a very poor start at the turn of the century and in a hundred years we have reached a little above the half a mark and even now females are way behind males. Rural urban and inter group disparities were sharp in 1991, the sharpest being amongst the females themselves. Urban females were twice as well off in literacy compare to their rural counterparts. Scheduled Caste (SC) and Scheduled Tribe (ST) females were at the bottom of the heap (Urban male- 81%, Urban female- 64%, Rural male- 58%, Rural female 31%, SC male-50%, SC female- 24%, ST male- 41% and ST female- 18%).

The Census 2001

- The overall literacy rates have gone up 52 % to 65 % in 2001 for population aged 7 + , female literacy for this period has moved up from 39 % to 54 % in 2001
- ♦ According to the Census of India 2001, the literacy rate for the population aged seven years and more works out to be 65.38 , this rate being 75.85 for males and 54.16 for females. Thus, three fourths of the males and more than half of the females (Age 7+) are literate in a population of over a billion
- ♦ The progress during 1991-2001 is a record jump of 13.17 percentage points from 52.21 in 1991 to 65.38 in 2001. The increase in female literacy rate is higher being 14.87 percentage points compared to 11.72 percentage points for males. Thus , the increase in literacy rates observed during 1991-2001 in respect of

persons, males as well as females have been the highest recorded in comparison to earlier decades since 1951 except in case of males during 1951-61

- ♦ The gap in male female literacy rates of 18.30 percentage points in 1951, increased to 26.62 in 1981 but is seen as decreasing since In 1991, this gap was marginally reduced to 24.84 and In 2001 it has further narrowed to 21.70 percentage points
- ♦ Mizoram has recorded the minimum gap in male female literacy rates of 4.56 percentage points In Kerala this gap is 6.34 percentage points and in Meghalaya it is 5.73 percentage points in 2001 It is important to note in case of Meghalaya although the combined literacy rates in the state is below the national average, male female literacy gaps are very small This can perhaps be attributed to the relatively more advantageous position of women in this matrilineal society Male female differentials are as high as 32.50 percentage points in Gujarat, these figures being 32.12 for Rajasthan, 30.33 point for Dadra & Nagar Haveli, and more than 20 percentage points in Uttaranchal (23.75), Haryana (23.24), Chhattisgarh (25.46), Orissa (25.02), Madhya Pradesh (26.55), Uttar Pradesh (27.30), Jammu & Kashmir (23.83), Jharkhand (29.56), and Bihar (26.80)
- ♦ It is heartening to note that for the first time since independence, the absolute number of illiterates have shown a decline The decline is as large as 31.96 million, the same being 21.45 million among males and 10.51 million among females However, the numbers of illiterates are still huge, 296 million in all out of whom 190 million (64%) are female
- ♦ Kerala continues its lead on the literacy rate with 90.92 followed by Mizoram 88.49 Bihar has recorded the lowest literacy rate of 47.63 percent in the country Kerala continues to retain the top spot in the country with 94.20% literacy rate for males and 87.86% for the females Bihar has recorded the lowest literacy rate both in case of males (60.32%) and females (33.57%)
- ♦ Seven states / union territories have less than 50% female literacy, namely, Rajasthan (44.34%), Arunachal Pradesh (44.24%), Dadra and Nagar Haveli (42.99%), Uttar Pradesh (42.98%), Jammu & Kashmir (41.82%), Jharkhand (39.38%), and Bihar (33.57%)
- ♦ The states and union territories with literacy rates below the national average are Jammu & Kashmir in north, Rajasthan and Dadra and Nagar Haveli in west, Andhra Pradesh in south, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh and Uttar Pradesh in the central parts, and, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam and Meghalaya in the north eastern part of the country The state and union territories with literacy rates below the national average in respect of all three categories, i.e., persons, males and females, are Arunachal Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Jammu & Kashmir, Jharkhand and Uttar Pradesh

The National Sample Survey 1997

- It is indeed important to acknowledge the accuracy of the 53rd round of the National Sample Survey 1997 which had indicated that India had achieved a breakthrough in literacy in the 1990s The overall literacy rate went up from 52 percent in 1991 to 62 percent in 1997
- Male female gap had narrowed Female literacy improved by 11 percentage points compared to 9 percentage points increase in the case of males during 1991-97 Female literacy stood at 50% though was still much lower than the male literacy rate of 73%
- Rural literacy had progressed faster The gap between rural and urban literacy levels had narrowed The rural urban gap was 28.4 percentage points In 1991, the rural literacy rate being 44.7 and urban literacy rate at 73.1 The rural literacy rate in 1997 had reached 56% mark and only 14 percentage points lower than the urban literacy rate of 80 During these six years between 1991 and 1997, the improvement in rural literacy was to the tune of 11.3 percentage points which was twice as much as the growth of 6.9 percentage points for urban populations

Table 3.2: Ranking of States and Union Territories by Literacy rate by sex 2001

Rank	Females		Males		Persons	
	State/ UTs	% Literate	States/UTs	% Literate	States/UTs	% Literate
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Kerala	87.86	Kerala	94.20	Kerala	94.20
2	Mizoram	85.13	Lakshadweep*	93.15	Mizoram	88.49
3	Lakshadweep*	81.56	Mizoram	90.69	Lakshadweep*	77.27
4	Chandigarh*	76.63	Pondicherry*	88.89	Goa	77.13
5	Goa	75.61	Goa	88.88	Delhi*	81.82
6	Andaman & Nicobar Islands*	75.29	Daman & Diu*	88.40	Chandigarh*	81.76
7	Delhi*	75.00	Delhi*	87.37	Pondicherry*	81.49
8	Pondicherry*	74.13	Maharashtra	86.27	Andaman & Nicobar Islands*	81.18
9	Daman & Diu*	70.37	Andaman & Nicobar Islands*	86.07	Daman & Diu*	81.09
10	Himachal Pradesh 2	68.00	Himachal Pradesh 2	86.02	Maharashtra	77.27
11	Maharashtra	67.51	Chandigarh*	85.65	Himachal Pradesh 2	77.13
12	Tripura	65.41	Uttaranchal	84.01	Tripura	73.66
13	Tamil Nadu	64.55	Tamil Nadu	82.33	Tamil Nadu	73.47
14	Punjab	63.59	Tripura	80.50	Uttaranchal	72.28
15	Nagaland	61.92	Gujarat	80.50	Gujarat 3	69.97
16	Sikkim	61.46	Haryana	79.25	Punjab	69.95
17	Meghalaya	60.41	Manipur	77.87	Sikkim	69.68
18	Uttaranchal	60.26	Chhattisgarh	77.86	West Bengal	69.22
19	West Bengal	60.22	West Bengal	77.58	Manipur	68.87
20	Manipur	59.70	Madhya Pradesh	76.80	Haryana	68.59
21	Gujarat	58.00	Sikkim	76.73	Nagaland	67.11
22	Karnataka	57.45	Rajasthan	76.46	Karnataka	67.04
23	Haryana	56.01	Karnataka	76.29	INDIA	65.38
24	Assam	56.03	Orissa	75.95	Chhattisgarh	65.18
	INDIA	54.13	INDIA	75.85	Assam	64.28
25	Chhattisgarh	52.40	Punjab	75.63	Madhya Pradesh	64.11
26	Andhra Pradesh	70.85	Dadar & Nagar Haveli	73.32	Orissa	63.61
27	Orissa	50.93	Assam	71.93	Meghalaya	63.31
28	Madhya Pradesh	50.25	Nagaland	71.77	Andhra Pradesh	61.11
29	Rajasthan	44.34	Andhra Pradesh	70.85	Rajasthan	61.03
30	Arunachal Pradesh	44.24	Uttar Pradesh	70.23	Dadar & Nagar Haveli	60.03
31	Dadar & Nagar Haveli	42.99	Jharkhand	67.94	Uttar Pradesh	57.36
32	Uttar Pradesh	42.93	Meghalaya	66.14	Arunachal Pradesh	54.74
33	Jammu & Kashmir	41.92	Jammu & Kashmir	65.75	Jammu & Kashmir	54.46
34	Jharkhand	39.38	Arunachal Pradesh	64.07	Jharkhand	54.13
35	Bihar	33.52	Bihar	60.32	Bihar	47.53

Note. 1 The literacy rates for India have been worked out excluding entire Kutch district, Morvi, Maliya-Miyana and Wankar talukas of Rajkot district, Joda taluka of Jamnagar district of Gujarat State and entire Kinnaur district of Himachal Pradesh where population enumeration of Census of India, 2001, could not be conducted due to natural calamities.

2 The literacy rates for Himachal Pradesh exclude district Kinnaur

3 The literacy rates for the state of Gujarat have thus been worked out excluding the earth quake affected areas as mentioned at Note 1

Fig 1
Growth of literacy rate of India by sex 1951- 2001
 (Census of India 2001)

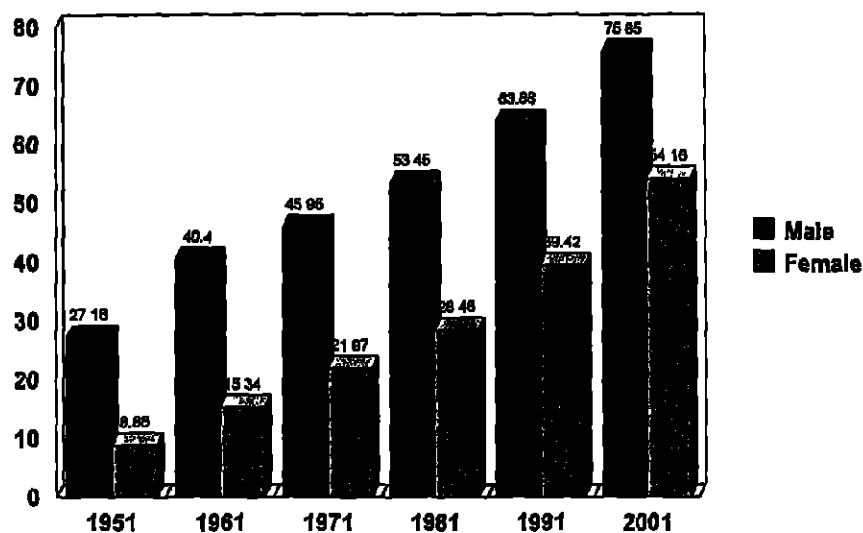
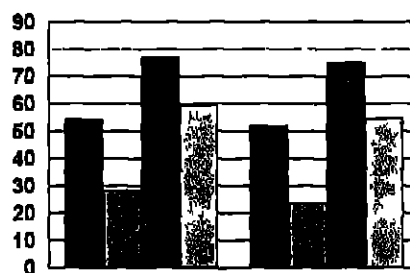


Fig 2
Adolescent literacy rate percent by age & sex between 1961-1991
 (Registrar General of India)



	10-14 years	15-19 years
■ 1961 male	64.5	52
■ 1961 female	28.4	23.8
■ 1991 male	77	75.3
□ 1991 female	59.7	54.9

Table 3-3 : States and Union Territories ranked on Female Literacy in India in 2001

Rank in 2001	States/UTs	Literacy Rate in 2001			Literacy Rate in 1991			Percentage points increase in Literacy Rate over 1991		
		Female	Male	Person	Female	Male	Person	Female	Male	Person
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Kerala	87.86	94.20	81.8	86.17	93.62	89.82	1.69	0.58	1.10
2	Mizoram	85.13	90.69	81.09	78.60	85.16	82.27	6.33	5.53	6.22
3	Lakshadweep*	81.56	93.15	87.52	72.89	90.18	81.78	8.84	2.97	5.74
4	Chandigarh*	76.65	85.67	81.76	72.34	82.04	77.81	4.41	3.63	3.95
5	Goa	75.61	88.88	77.13	67.09	83.64	75.51	8.52	5.24	1.62
6	Andaman & Nicobar Islands*	75.29	86.07	81.18	65.46	78.99	73.02	9.83	7.08	8.16
7	Delhi*	75.00	87.37	81.82	66.99	82.01	75.29	8.01	5.35	6.53
8	Pondicherry*	74.13	88.89	81.49	65.63	83.68	74.74	8.50	5.21	6.75
9	Daman & Diu*	70.37	88.40	81.09	59.40	82.66	71.20	10.97	5.74	9.89
10	Himachal Pradesh 2	68.00	86.02	77.13	52.13	75.36	63.86	15.87	10.66	13.27
11	Maharashtra	67.51	86.27	77.27	52.32	76.56	64.87	13.19	9.71	12.40
12	Tripura	65.41	80.50	73.66	49.65	70.58	60.44	15.76	9.92	13.22
13	Tamil Nadu	64.55	82.33	73.47	51.33	73.75	62.66	13.22	8.58	10.81
14	Punjab	63.59	75.63	69.95	50.41	65.66	58.51	11.18	9.97	11.44
15	Nagaland	61.92	71.71	67.11	54.75	67.62	61.65	7.17	4.09	5.46
16	Sikkim	61.46	76.73	69.68	46.69	65.74	56.94	14.17	10.99	12.74
17	Meghalaya	60.41	66.14	63.31	44.85	53.12	49.10	15.56	13.02	14.21
18	Uttaranchal	60.26	84.01	72.28	-	-	-	-	-	-
19	West Bengal	60.22	77.58	69.22	46.56	67.81	57.70	13.66	9.77	11.52
20	Manipur	59.70	77.87	68.87	47.60	71.63	59.89	12.10	6.24	8.98
21	Gujarat	58.00	80.50	69.97	48.64	73.13	61.29	9.36	7.37	8.68
22	Karnataka	57.45	76.29	67.04	44.34	67.26	56.04	13.11	9.03	11.00
23	Haryana	56.01	79.25	68.59	40.47	69.10	55.85	15.54	10.15	12.74
24	Assam	56.03	71.93	64.28	43.03	61.87	52.89	13.00	10.06	11.39
25	Chhatisgarh	52.40	77.86	65.18	-	-	-	-	-	-
26	Andhra Pradesh	70.85	70.85	61.11	32.72	55.13	44.09	18.45	15.72	17.02
27	Orissa	50.93	75.95	63.61	34.68	63.09	49.09	16.25	12.86	14.52
28	Madhya Pradesh	50.25	76.80	64.11	28.85	58.42	44.20	21.40	18.38	17.91
29	Rajasthan	44.34	76.46	61.03	20.44	54.99	38.55	23.90	21.47	22.48
30	Arunachal Pradesh	44.24	64.07	54.74	29.69	51.45	41.59	14.55	12.62	13.15
31	Dadar & Nagar Haveli	42.99	73.32	60.03	26.98	53.56	40.71	16.01	19.76	19.32
32	Uttar Pradesh	42.93	70.23	57.36	25.31	55.73	41.60	17.62	14.50	15.76
33	Jammu & Kashmir	41.92	65.75	54.46	-	-	-	-	-	-
34	Jharkhand	39.38	67.94	54.13	-	-	-	-	-	-
35	Bihar	33.52	60.32	47.53	22.89	52.49	38.48	10.63	7.83	9.05
	INDIA	54.16	75.85	65.38	39.32	64.13	52.21	14.84	11.72	13.17

Note: 1 The literacy rates for India have been worked out excluding entire Kutch district, Morvi, Malva-Miyana and Wankaner talukas of Rajkot district, Jodha taluka of Jamnagar district of Gujarat State and entire Kinnaur district of Himachal Pradesh where population enumeration of Census of India, 2001, could not be conducted due to natural calamities

2 The literacy rates for Himachal Pradesh exclude district Kinnaur

3 The literacy rates for the state of Gujarat have thus been worked out excluding the earth quake affected areas as mentioned at Note 1

Fig 3

Female literacy rate in India Census 2001

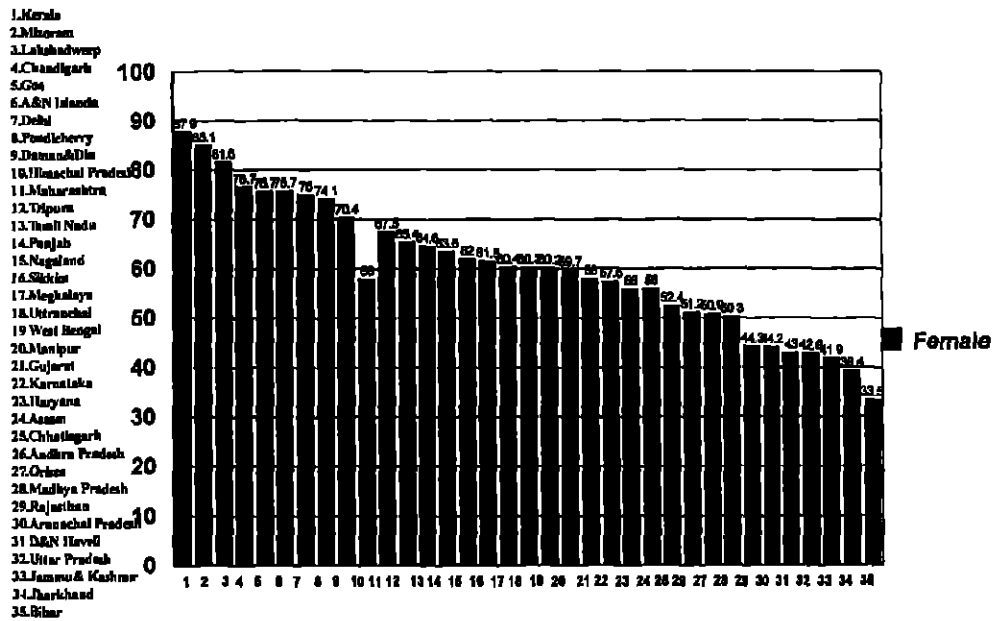
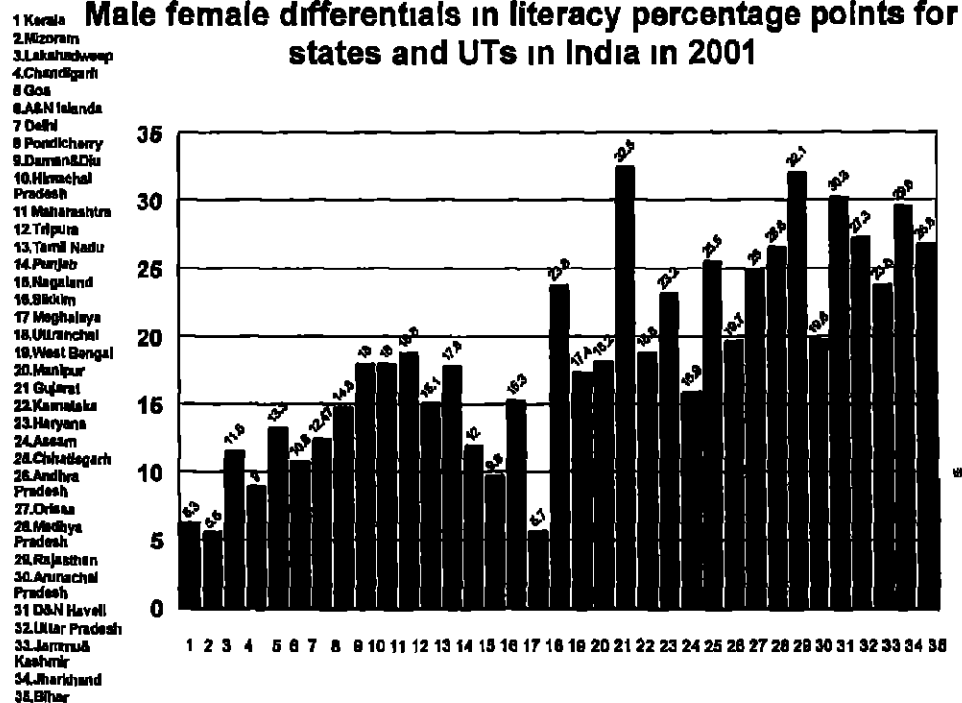


Fig 4

Male female differentials in literacy percentage points for states and UTs in India in 2001



Correlates of Female Literacy

Female literacy and education make a difference to the quality of life both directly and indirectly. A combination of health inputs and education and awareness has made a difference to several physical quality of life indicators of the Indian population in the last fifty years, and, yet we are way off from adequate health for all. The female mean age at marriage has been fallen steadily during the last several decades. The CBR has fallen from 40.8 in 1951 to 26.4, IMR is halved from 146 per 1000 live births in 1951 to 72, Life expectancy has gone up from 37 years to 62 years (1998 SRS), and the TFR has fallen from 6.0 in 1951 to 3.3 (1997 SRS). The Couple Protection Rate has gone up from 10.4% (1971) to 44% in 1999. As table 3.4 indicates low female literacy states display higher population growth rates, higher birth and death rates, higher IMR and USMR, high MMR, lower female mean age at marriage and lower female life expectancy at birth. Besides Kerala, which has had the best record on most social indicators, Mizoram, Tamil Nadu, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka and even Andhra appear to have done very well as per the recent reports.

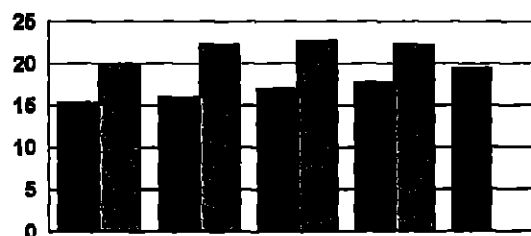
Table 3.4 Female Literacy and its Correlates

SL. No	States/UTs	Female literacy rates Rank 1991	Annual pop. growth rate (%) 1981-91	TFR 1992-93	CBR 1992-93	CDR 1992-93	IMR 1995	USMR 1992-93	Female mean age at marriage 1992-93	Female life expectancy at birth in years 1992-93	Contraceptive prevalence among women (%) 1992-93
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Kerala	86	14.08	2.08	19.6	6.2	16	32.0	22.1	74.7	63.3
2	Mizoram	79	38.98	2.3	20.8	3.4	-	29.3	22.9	-	53.8
3	Lakshadweep	73	28.40	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4	Chandigarh	72	41.88	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5	Goa	67	15.96	-	17.2	6.8	-	38.9	25.1	-	47.8
6	Delhi	67	50.64	3.02	26.6	7.8	-	83.1	20.9	-	60.3
7	A & N Islands	66	47.88	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
8	Pondicherry	66	33.51	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
9	Daman & Diu	60	28.43	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	Nagaland	55	56.86	3.26	31.3	1.9	-	20.7	22.7	-	13.0
11	Himachal Pradesh	52	19.39	2.97	28.2	8.4	-	69.1	20.4	63.6	58.4
12	Maharashtra	52	25.43	2.86	26.3	7.7	55	70.3	19.3	65.4	43.7
13	Punjab	51	20.26	2.92	25.0	7.1	54	68.0	21.1	67.6	58.7
14	Tamil Nadu	51	14.94	2.48	23.5	9.7	56	86.5	20.5	60.4	49.8
15	Tripura	50	33.69	2.67	23.1	11.8	-	104.6	21.1	-	56.1
16	Gujarat	49	20.80	2.99	27.2	9.1	62	104.0	20.2	61.1	-
17	Manipur	47	28.56	2.76	24.4	5.8	-	61.7	25.0	-	34.9
18	Sikkim	47	28.17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
19	West Bengal	46	24.55	2.92	25.5	9.7	59	99.3	19.2	62.3	57.4
20	Meghalaya	45	31.80	3.73	31.9	6.2	-	86.9	21.2	-	20.7
21	Karnataka	44	20.66	2.85	25.9	7.3	62	87.3	19.6	63.5	-
22	Assam	43	23.58	3.43	30.4	11.3	77	142.2	21.6	55.3	-
23	Haryana	41	26.27	3.99	32.9	9.0	68	98.7	18.4	63.7	-
24	Orissa	35	19.50	2.92	26.5	11.0	103	131.0	20.7	55.3	36.3
25	Andhra Pradesh	33	23.91	2.59	24.2	8.7	66	91.2	18.1	61.5	-
26	Arunachal Pradesh	30	35.86	4.25	34.6	8.2	-	72.0	20.8	-	23.6
27	Madhya Pradesh	29	26.75	3.90	31.6	10.3	99	130.3	17.4	53.8	36.5
28	Dadra & Nagar Haveli	27	33.49	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
29	Uttar Pradesh	25	25.41	4.82	35.9	11.9	86	141.3	18.6	55.1	19.8
30	Bihar	23	23.49	4.00	32.1	11.5	73	127.5	18.0	57.2	-
31	Rajasthan	21	28.07	3.63	27.0	7.8	85	102.6	18.4	58.5	31.8
32	Jammu & Kashmir	-	28.92	3.13	27.9	8.7	-	59.1	21.2	-	-
	India	39	23.56	3.39	28.7	9.7	74	109.3	20.0	59.7	4.06

Source: Census of India, 1991 and SRS estimates, RGI, Ministry of Home Affairs, 1994

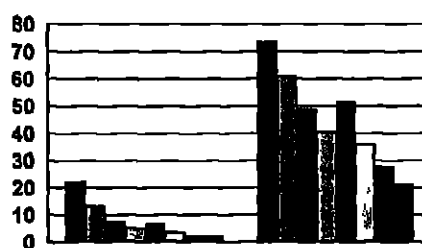
Fig 8
Mean age at marriage 1951-1991

(Registrar General of India)



	1951	1961	1971	1981	1991
Female	15.4	16.1	17.1	17.9	19.5
Male	19.9	22.3	22.7	22.3	

Fig 9
Percentage married among females by age groups
and by rural urban residence
(Census of India)



	15-19 years	20-24 years
1951 rural	22	73
1971 rural	13.47	61.03
1981 rural	7.85	48.52
1991 rural	6.3	41.4
1951 urban	10.5	67.4
1971 urban	3.25	54.4
1981 urban	2.17	27.08
1991 urban	2.28	21.4

Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE)

Early childhood care and education (ECCE) acquires critical importance as a major compensatory programme in India where more than half the children are born and live in dire poverty. The very concept of ECCE connotes early intervention in the "care" and "education" of the child for a holistic development. Health, nutrition, physical, mental, social and emotional needs of a child are to be consciously catered for. Presently there are several programmes of ECCE (mainly state supported) to include ICDS, creches, Balwadis, ECE centres, pre-primary schools in state and private sector, and many experimental and innovative projects like child to child programme, child media laboratory, mobile creches and Vikaswadis.

Although the Indian constitution does not specifically mention pre-school education, article 45 directs the state to provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of fourteen. By implication provision of formal schooling to 6-14 years age group through the programme of universalisation of elementary education (UEE), has been a major goal we have chased since 1950. The importance of pre school education and early childhood stimulation has been felt for a long time but has acquired a critical dimension as a necessary pre condition for improving children's school performance and progress by NPE. Starting with 33 experimental projects, ICDS has expanded to cover all community development blocks currently, covering over 14 million children in the age group 0-6 years, with pre school education as a component in 1996-97. The National Policy on Education 1986 places high priority on ECCE and recognising the holistic nature of child development – health, nutrition, mental, physical, social, moral and emotional development, suggests its integration into ICDS programme. ECCE is to lay special emphasis on children belonging to underprivileged groups and first generation learners. In addition, it is seen as serving as a school readiness programme and as a support service for girls in UEE as also for working women in low income groups. ICDS is a support programme to relieve girls from the care of their siblings, thereby improving their retention in schools. Despite some drawbacks in the programme, studies have shown that children who have been in ICDS centres stay for longer time in schools. ICDS suffers from lack of community support and participation. In some cases and in certain areas, teachers were not even aware of the existing ICDS centre. It is felt that for increasing the girls' participation in ICDS, strengthening of ICDS centres is important. Three prominent correctives are needed from the point of view equality between sexes in the ICDS are

- i) Gender disaggregated Data for all centres for planning suitable interventions
- ii) Gender sensitisation of all ICDS functionaries especially, the Anganwadi Workers
- iii) Locating Anganwadis near the primary school and extended hours as day care centres to enable girls to continue schooling.

The ICDS covers 75% of the community development blocks at present covering over 18 million children. By the end of the Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002) this programme will be extended to 90% of the blocks.

Universalisation of Elementary Education

Article 45 of the Directive Principle of the State Policy enjoins on the State to endeavour to provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of 14 years within a period of 10 years from the commencement of the Constitution. This Constitutional Directive was interpreted by the planners as five years of primary and three years of upper primary education for children in the age group 6-14 years as a programme of Universal Elementary Education (UEE). The commitment to UEE has been reiterated in each of the eight five year plans and is listed as a top priority in the draft approach paper to the Ninth Five Year Plan. The Education Commission (1964-66), the National Policy on Education 1968, the National Policy on the Child 1974, Report of the Committee on the Status of Women 1974, the National Policy on Education 1986, its revised POA 1992 and the National Perspective Plan on Women 1988-2000, have all emphasised the need to implement the programme of UEE at the earliest.

There have been number of educational initiatives from the central and state governments and from NGOs to achieve UEE. Some of those initiatives are Bihar Education Project (BEP), Lok Jumbish in Rajasthan, School Teaching Programmes started by Eklavya in Madhya Pradesh, PROPE - action based project for rural communities in Maharashtra, UP Basic Education Project, Girl Child Education Project (USAID), NGO Forum for Street and Working Children started in Delhi, UPE in Orissa, PIED for disabled children in eight states, Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Project (APPEP) and District Primary Education Programme (DPEP). DPEP is the recent initiative of MHRD, Govt of India in which district level, decentralised micro planning, participatory, people oriented approach have been the major objectives. Primary education has been reinstated. Starting with 57% share of Plan allocations for education in the First Five Plan, its share went down to 29% in the Seventh Plan and is now receiving about half of the plan budget. Considerable progress has been made in terms of provision of facilities and enrolment of children in the relevant age group. However, the goal of UEE continues to elude us. This is largely on account of the inability of the system to enroll and retain girls and children from the disadvantaged groups.

Institutional expansion for improvement of access

On account of intense efforts, India has achieved near universal access to primary schooling through formal and non formal / alternative schooling facilities. However, middle school facilities continue to be very limited especially in rural areas. During 1950-51 and 1999-2000

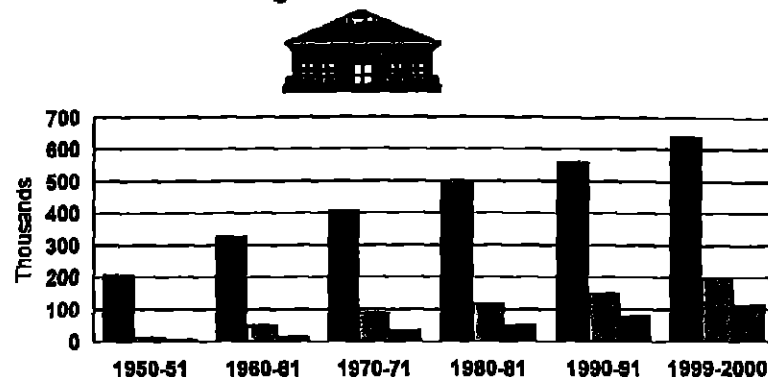
- The number of primary schools have gone up from 209671 to 641695
- The number of middle schools have increased from 13596 to 198004
- The number of high/ higher secondary schools has gone up from 7416 to 116860

Table 3.5 Growth of Educational Institutions at the School Stage in India (1950-51 to 1999-2000)

Year	Primary	Middle	High/Hr. Sec.
1950-51	209671	13596	7416
1960-61	330399	49663	17329
1970-71	408378	90621	37051
1980-81	494503	118555	51573
1990-91	560935	151456	79796
1999-2000*	641695	198004	116820

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, 1998-99, MHRD & Annual Report, 2000-2001, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

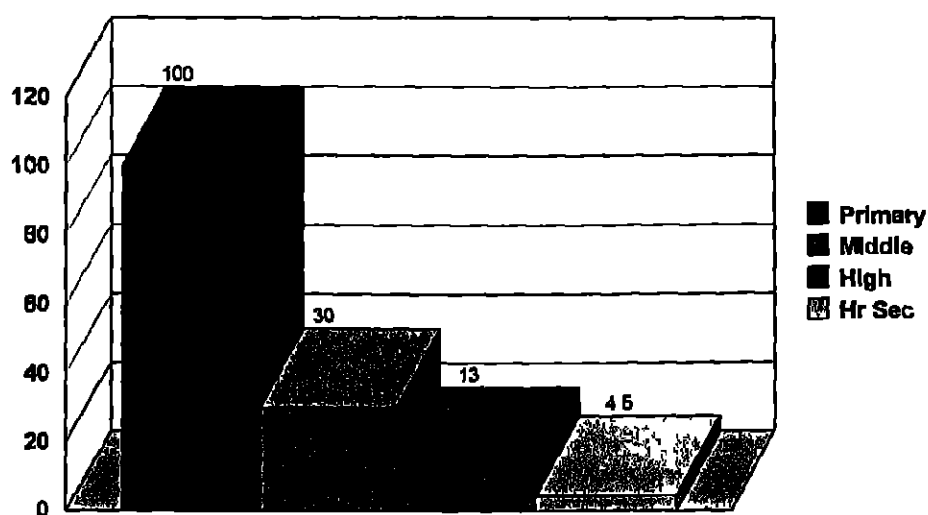
Fig 7
Growth of educational institutions at the school stage in India during 1950-51 and 1999-2000



	1950-51	1960-61	1970-71	1980-81	1990-91	1999-2000
Primary	200671	330399	408378	494803	560935	641995
Middle	13586	49663	90621	118635	181458	198064
High/Hr Sec	7418	17329	37681	81673	79796	110820

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, 1998-99

Fig 8
Number of middle, high and higher secondary schools per 100 primary schools in India in 1998-99

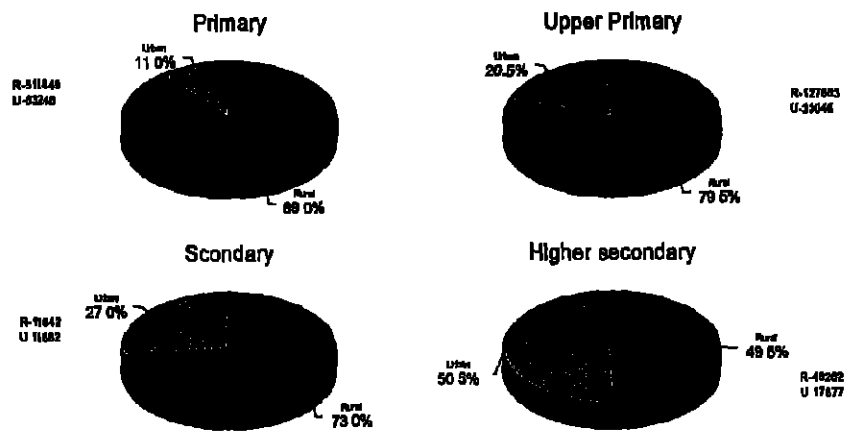


Source: Selected Educational Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, 1998-99

- ◆ As table 3.5 shows number of there has been large scale expansion of the educational system since independence. The number of primary schools since the First Five Year Plan have increased more than three times. However, middle schools have multiplied fourteen times and the high / higher secondary schools have increased sixteen fold.
- ◆ However, considering universalisation of elementary education (UEE) is both a Constitutional given and a basic human right of children, the number of middle schools fall far short of the requirement. In the Eighth Five Year Plan it was decided that the then existing ratio of four primary schools to one middle school would be brought down to 3 : 1 in that Plan and subsequently 2 : 1. It is not understood that unless all the children in the age group 6-14 are enrolled in the first instance and have easy access to complete middle stage i.e. from class I – VIII, how would we ever think of UEE without universal provision. In any case the rural girls do not cross the village boundary and are, therefore, limited in their outreach. The three kilometre yardstick will finally have to go and be replaced by a full eight year school for every child.
- ◆ According to the Annual Report of the Department of Education, MHRD, Government of India, 1999-2000, for every 100 primary schools there are only 30 middle / upper primary schools, 13 high schools and less than 5 higher secondary schools (Table 3.6). The situation in rural areas would be far worse. The last available rural urban statistics dating to Sept 30th 1993 (Sixth All India Educational Survey) show that at that point on an average something like 13 % villages had no primary school, 78 % villages had no middle schools and high schools were available only in 8 % villages and only 2 % villages had a higher secondary school. It is ironical that three fourth are population live in rural areas. More than fifty percent of the higher secondary schools are located in urban areas. As would be obvious from both these tables the regional variations are extremely large. The access ratio in many states is 1 : 10 or even more. Even in state like Tamil Nadu there are only 18 middle schools for 100 primary schools.
- ◆ The availability of secondary and higher secondary being so low in rural areas the shortage of women teachers in rural areas would continue as it is only after twelve years of schooling girls can enter in teacher training courses and for that matter entry into any post secondary or higher general or technical education is a remote possibility for rural girls.
- ◆ In the Ninth Plan, there was a target of building seventy five thousand rooms / buildings at the elementary stage. There has been tremendous attempt to provide primary schooling through formal and alternative modes. It may perhaps be safe to presume that while access to three to five years of schooling be now available to most of our village children especially through our major EFA initiatives like Lok Jumbish, Shiksha Karmi, DPEP, Bihar Education Projects etc., the situation of availability of middle schooling to every village child continues to be a big question mark. The Tenth Plan would have to contend with huge back logs from the unmet targets of the Ninth Plan.
- ◆ And the burgeoning slum population in Metropolitan areas remains unserved by the urban authorities as far as any basic amenities concerned leave alone schooling.

During the last two decades alone the number of primary schools have increased from 494503 to 626737, middle schools from 118555 to 190166, and high / higher secondary from 51573 to 112438. On an aggregative basis there is a very significant growth of institutions at all levels in all the states but there are still states where the growth is very slow.

Fig 9
Distribution of schools by rural urban area in India

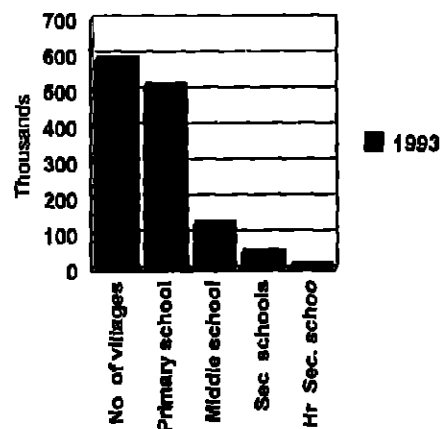


Sixth All India Education Survey, NCERT, 1998

Fig 10
Access of rural girls to schooling in India

- The number of primary schools in rural areas were a total of 511848 leaving 13% villages without a primary school
- In all there were 127883 middle schools in rural areas leaving 78% villages without upper primary schooling
- There were 48282 secondary schools covering 8% villages
- Only 11642 Higher secondary schools are located in rural areas covering 2% villages.

There were a total of 587247 inhabited villages in India at 1991 census



Sixth All India Educational Survey, NCERT, 1998

Table 3.6 Number of middle, secondary and higher secondary schools per 100 primary schools in 1998-99 in India and States

SL.No	States/ UTs	Number of Schools				No of middle schools per 100 primary schools	No of high schools per 100 primary schools	No of hr sec. schools per 100 primary schools
		Prima	Middle	High	Hr Sec.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Andhra Pradesh	51836	8713	8897	97	17	17	0.2
2	Arunachal Pradesh	1277	326	103	68	26	8	5.3
3	Assam	33236	8019	3915	599	24	12	2
4	Bihar	53697	13761	4146	227	26	8	0.4
5	Goa	1042	98	355	81	9	34	8
6	Gujarat	14789	20044	4188	1823	136	28	12
7	Haryana	10269	1788	2733	1052	17	27	10
8	Himachal Pradesh	7732	1189	1028	497	15	13	6.4
9	Jammu & Kashmir	10483	3104	1114	237	30	11	2.3
10	Karnataka	23690	24142	8216	1497	102	35	6.3
11	Kerala	6755	2966	2585	524	44	38	8
12	Madhya Pradesh	86858	21108	4204	4137	24	5	5
13	Maharashtra	41804	22196	10982	2922	53	28	7
14	Manipur	2570	630	510	72	25	20	2.8
15	Meghalaya	4679	946	457	36	20	10	0.8
16	Mizoram	1244	741	360	18	60	29	1.4
17	Nagaland	1469	470	281	11	32	19	0.7
18	Orissa	42104	12096	6072	231	29	14	0.5
19	Punjab	12633	2527	2174	1151	20	17	9
20	Rajasthan	35077	14807	3844	1789	42	11	5.1
21	Sikkim	501	131	76	32	26	15	6.4
22	Tamil Nadu	30844	5538	4208	3149	18	14	10
23	Tripura	2065	414	385	204	20	19	10
24	Uttar Pradesh	94476	20675	3149	5190	22	3	5.5
25	West Bengal	52123	2864	5053	1583	5	10	3
	Union Territories							
26	A & N Islands	188	51	38	44	27	20	23.4
27	Chandigarh	48	34	59	48	71	123	100
28	D & N Haveli	144	54	9	6	38	6	4.2
29	Daman & Diu	53	22	20	5	42	38	9.4
30	Delhi	2676	601	364	1095	22	14	41
31	Lakshdweep	19	4	9	2	21	47	11
32	Pondicherry	356	107	114	60	30	32	17
	India	626737	190166	79648	28487	30	13	4.5

Source: MHRD, Selected Educational Statistics, Department of Education, 1999-2000

The inter state disparities are very large in providing universal access to all children at the elementary stage. The access ratio in many states from primary to upper primary is 1:10 or more as is evident from the above table. Unless the access ratio from primary school to upper primary schools is 1:1 or there are complete elementary schools from Classes I-VIII, UEE will remain a pious idea only

Enrolment at the Elementary Stage

A fairly strong gender focus has resulted in greater participation of girls in elementary schooling but the male female gap in enrolment ratios and share of girls in total enrolments is below par for the country as a whole and is very marked at the Middle Stage of education. Intra female disparities as between rural urban areas and among general populations, Scheduled Castes (SC), Scheduled Tribes (ST), and some Minorities are sharp.

Table 3.7 Enrolment at the Elementary Stage by sex (1950-51 to 1999-2000)

Year	Primary Stage (Classes I- V)		
	Boys	Girls	Total
1950-51	13769855	5384602	19154457
1960-61	23592727 (41.63)	11401102 (52.77)	34993829 (45.26)
1970-71	35739221 (33.99)	21306220 (46.49)	57045441 (38.66)
1980-81	45286131 (21.08)	28488056 (25.21)	73774187 (22.68)
1990-91	56954944 (20.49)	40420356 (29.52)	96375300 (23.45)
1999-2000	64103289	49509252	113612541
Year	Middle stage (Classes VI- VII)		
	Boys	Girls	Total
1950-51	2585741	534217	3119958
1960-61	5074345 (49.04)	1630465 (67.23)	6704810 (53.47)
1970-71	9425697 (46.16)	3889473 (58.08)	13315170 (49.64)
1980-81	139363965 (32.35)	6790399 (42.72)	20724361 (35.75)
1990-91	21487106 (35.15)	12538881 (45.84)	34025987 (39.09)
1999-2000	25082351	16982647	42065198

Source: Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, Annual Report, 2000-2001

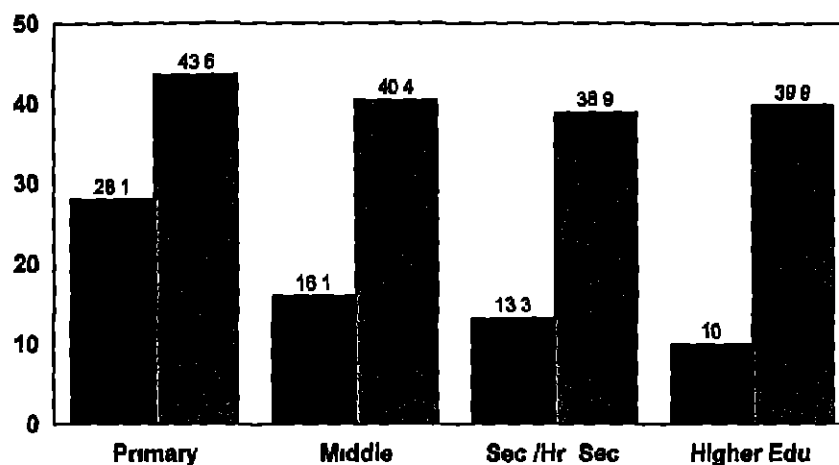
Note: Figures in parenthesis indicate growth rate of education among children

Faster Growth of Girl's Participation

- ♦ The enrolments of girls at the elementary stage have grown steadily over the last five decades. The number of girls at the primary stage has gone up from 5.38 million in 1950-51 to 49.51 million in 1999-2000. The number of girls at the middle stage has increased from 0.53 million in 1950-51 to 16.98 million in 1999-2000. At the high/higher secondary stage, the number of girls has increased from 0.2 million to 11 million. The number of boys enrolled has increased from 1.3 million to 17.2 million from 1950-51 to 1999-2000.
- ♦ In fact, the growth rates for girls have always been higher than that for boys for both starting from a much lower base but also on account of sustained state effort to promote education of girls as an important part of planned development. It may be noted that even during the period 1990-91 to 1999-2000, the growth rate for girls at the primary stage (Classes I-V) is twice as high as that for boys and

Fig 11

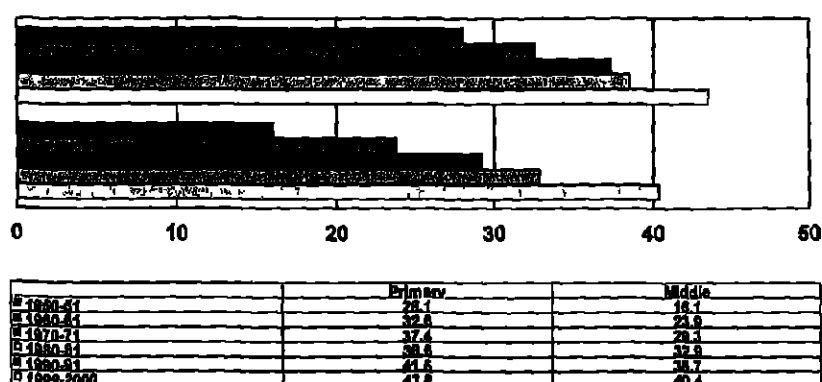
Girls as percentage to total at various levels of education in India 1950- 51 and 1999-2000



Source: Selected Educational Statistics, and Annual Report 2000-2001, Department of Education, MHRD

Fig 12

Percentage girls to total at the elementary stage in India during 1950-51 to 1999-2000



Source: Annual Report, 2000-2001, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

more than double at the middle stage (VI-VIII)

- ♦ From 1990-91 to 1999-2000, enrolments at the primary stage increased by more than seventeen million, girls accounting for close to ten million of the increase compared to boys whose share was a little over seven million. At the middle stage, enrolments increased by 8 million, girls accounting for 4.4 million of the enhanced enrolments and boys' share being 3.6 million.

Percentage Share of Girls to Total

The percentage of girls to the total has shown a steady increase since independence at all levels of education. During 1950-51 and 1999-2000, the percentage share of girls among the children enrolled at the primary stage went up from 28% to 44% and from 16% to 40% at the middle stage, from 13.3% to 39% at the Secondary / Higher Secondary level and from 10% to 40% in higher education.

Table 3.8 Percentage of girls in school enrolment at the elementary stage (1950-51 to 1999-2000)

Year	Primary stage (Classes I-V)	Middle stage (Classes VI-VIII)	High/ Hr. Sec. (Classes IX-XII)	Higher Education
1950-51	28.1	16.1	13.3	10.0
1960-61	32.6	23.9	20.5	20.4
1970-71	37.4	29.3	25.0	20.0
1980-81	38.6	32.9	29.6	26.7
1990-91	41.5	36.7	32.9	32.3
1999-2000	43.6	40.4	38.9	39.9

Source: Department of Education, MHRD, GOI Annual Report, 2000-2001

The Regional Variations in the share of girls to total number of students ranges

- from 37.78% in Bihar to 49.9% in Meghalaya at the primary stage,
- from 31.34% in Uttar Pradesh to 50.48% in Sikkim at the upper primary/ middle stage,
- from 25.68% in Bihar to 52.23% in Kerala, and,
- from 18.32% in Bihar to 52.24% in Kerala.

Percentage Share of SC/ST Children

Since independence, India has followed a policy of protective discrimination in favour of the historically disadvantaged groups of population the Scheduled Caste (SC) and Scheduled Tribe (ST) as noted by us in Chapter One. The impact of these policies is evident in the enhanced educational participation of these groups of population. It is evident from the data above that the percentage share of Scheduled Caste (SC) and Scheduled Tribe (ST) girls to the total SC, ST children is not very remarkably different from the overall percentage share of girls in general population at the primary stage. At the middle stage SC and ST girls are way behind. It is perhaps pertinent to state that the percentage share of SC, ST children to the total is similar to the ratio proportion of these groups in the total population at the primary stage but the situation is not satisfactory for both ST boys and girls at the middle stage (Table 3.9). The SC and ST population constituted 16.33% and 8.01% ST respectively at 1991 census.

Table 3 9 Percentage girls in total enrolment by groups at the elementary stage in 1999-2000*

Category	Primary stage Classes I – V	Middle Stage Classes VI-VIII
All Communities	43.6	40.4
SC	42.2	38.4
ST	42.4	37.9

Source Department of Education, MHRD, GOI Annual Report, 2000-2001
* Provisional

Enrolment Ratio

Enrolment ratios moved up constantly up to 1990-91 giving gross figures of 86 for girls and 114 for boys at the primary stage and to 47 for girls and 77 for boys at the middle stage. The enrolment ratios appear to be moving towards net figures in 1999-2000, these ratios being 85 for girls and 104 for boys at the primary level and 50 for girls and 67 for boys at the upper primary stage. This is likely on account of improved enrolment at the right age and better retention.

However, unless an attempt is made to collect age specific ratios separately, it would be difficult to come to any conclusion, because girls still continue to enter late and drop out earlier. The overall gender gaps persist and the situation of girls belonging to the Scheduled castes and the Scheduled tribes in terms of gender parity needs much greater attention.

Table 3 10 Enrolment Ratio by Stages and Sex (1950-51 to 1999-2000)

Year	Primary Stage (Classes I- V)			Upper primary (Classes VI- VII)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1950-51	60.8	24.9	42.6	20.8	4.3	12.9
1960-61	82.6	41.4	62.4	33.2	11.3	22.5
1970-71	96.5	60.5	78.6	46.3	19.4	33.4
1980-81	95.8	64.1	80.5	54.3	28.6	41.9
1990-91	113.9	85.5	100.1	76.6	47.0	62.1
1999-2000*	104.1	85.2	94.9	67.2	49.7	58.8

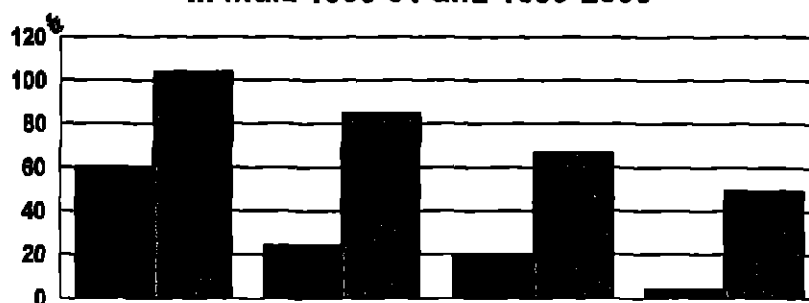
Source Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, Annual Report, 2000-2001.
*Provisional

It is a matter of great concern that the enrolment ratio of boys is showing a more marked downward trend since 1990-91 both at the primary and the upper primary levels. Girls show an improvement at the upper primary stage. One explanation could be that since the boys have been in the system longer, their enrolment ratios are perhaps moving towards net figures compared to girls.

The Regional variations in enrolment ratios for all groups are very vast ranging

Fig 13

Progress of gross enrolment ratio at elementary stage by sex in India 1950-51 and 1999-2000



Primary boys	Primary girls	Middle boys	Middle girls
60.6	24.8	20.6	4.8
104.1	85.2	67.2	49.7

Source: Annual Report, 2001, Department of Education, MHRD

Fig 14

Enrolment ratio at the elementary stage in India by sex and by caste in 1999-2000



	Primary	Upper primary
SC boys	104	73.8
SC girls	80.8	60.3
ST boys	112.7	70.8
ST girls	62.7	44.8

Source: Annual Report, Department of Education, MHRD, 2000-2001

- from 61.46 in Bihar to 138.48 in Sikkim for girls and from 66.30 in Chandigarh to 153.43 in the union territory of Dadar and Nagar Haveli at the primary stage,
- from 22.04 for Bihar to 93.36 in Kerala for girls and from 41.38 for Bihar to 105.89 in Rajasthan for boys at the upper primary/ middle stage (See Appendix Tables)

While girls trail behind boys in most cases, a phenomenon that is not receiving enough attention is the comparatively lower participation of boys in some states and union territories. Data shows boys are falling behind girls at the primary stage in Haryana, Punjab and the Andaman and Nicobar Islands and in Meghalaya, Nagaland, Sikkim, Chandigarh, Delhi and the Andaman and Nicobar Islands at the middle stage. Similar trends were noted by earlier studies for Bombay, Calcutta and Delhi (Nayar, 1993, 1997,2000)

Here, it may perhaps be necessary to look at the cultural variations and large city syndrome that might explain in part the lower educational participation of girls and now boys. Meghalaya is a matrilineal society and girls are favoured more, Sikkim is very gender egalitarian and Nagaland though patriarchal and patrilineal, does not discriminate between boys and girls in matters of education like Mizoram. The union territories of Andaman and Nicobar Islands and the Lakshadweep are also gender egalitarian though for different historical reasons. The former is a conglomeration of all Indian people of different religious persuasions, different ethnic and linguistic groups and comprising the descendants of the British Penal Settlements and later immigrants and hence the gender norms are very different. Lakshadweep is a matrilineal society with an overlay of Islam, treats its women very tenderly. Bombay, Delhi, Calcutta represent a peculiar amalgam of urban well being and affluence and islands of poverty where perhaps boys are freer or more likely to get odd jobs for livelihood compared to girls and where middle class girls continue to study more and more. Chandigarh, Punjab and Haryana are affluent and rife with the crime of female feticide on the one hand and the predominance of girls in primary education and in higher education as well.

Table 3.11 Enrolment Ratio by stages, by sex, by caste / tribes in India at the Elementary Stage from 1980-81 to 1999-2000*

Groups/Year	Classes I-V (6-11 years)			Classes VI-VII (11-14 years)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
All students						
1980-81	95.8	64.1	80.5	54.3	28.6	41.9
1990-91	114.0	85.5	100.1	76.6	47.0	62.1
1999-2000*	104.1	85.2	94.9	67.2	49.7	58.8
SC						
1980-81	105.4	57.8	82.2	41.4	16.2	29.1
1990-91	122.7	80.6	102.2	61.4	33.3	47.7
1999-2000*	103.57	80.53	92.41	73.57	50.33	62.49
ST						
1980-81	94.2	45.9	70.0	28.2	10.8	19.5
1990-91	126.8	78.6	103.4	51.3	27.5	39.7
1999-2000*	112.68	82.73	97.70	70.75	44.79	58.01

Source: Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, Annual Report 2000-2001 and Selected Educational Statistics 1995-96

*Provisional

It is important to note that while enrolment ratios of the SC and ST children appear to be improving, their retention rates are low. Official data on drop out is currently being put out for all students and separate

figures for SC and ST or by rural and urban areas are not available. Likewise no educational data is available for the minorities even though special programmes are being planned for the minority (Muslim) concentration districts of the country. These information gaps caused by political and bureaucratic failure lead to shoddy haphazard planning and poor implementation. For instance, several schemes are being addressed to the educationally backward Muslim minority by identifying districts and blocks with a substantial Muslim presence and they all have poor female literacy rates. One has yet to come across any tangible quantitative evidence on how many Muslim girls have benefited from these schemes and whether any change has occurred in their enrolment, retention and achievement as a result of these schemes. We have separate data on the Scheduled Castes who are a socially, economically and educationally deprived segment of the majority Hindu population. If for giving them protection, we could drop our secular band of our democracy, would it not be just if we give the religion and caste wise break up of our social and educational indicators like the Literacy rate, Enrolment Ratio, Percentage share to total number of students and teachers, the Drop Out Rate, the Retention figures, the Achievement levels of all communities. Withholding such information is more damaging than being constructive to a democracy.

The Rural Urban Divide

In 1993, according to the Sixth All India Education Survey (NCERT), for 587247 inhabited villages there were a total of

- 511,849 primary schools
- 127,863 middle schools
- 48,262 secondary schools
- 11,642 higher secondary schools

thus, going by pure averages, left

- 13% villages unserved by a primary school
- 78% villages without a middle school
- 92% villages without a high school and 98% villages without a higher secondary school
- ♦ There were 11642 rural higher secondary schools compared to 11,882 such schools for urban areas

Table 3.12 Enrolments at the school stage by sex and by rural urban areas in India in 1993
(In millions)

	Boys	Girls	Total	% Girls Rural-Urban
1	2	3	4	5
Primary (Classes I-V)				
Rural	42.06	30.41	72.47	74.69
Urban	12.99	11.47	24.56	25.31
Total	55.15	41.88	97.03	100.00
Middle (Classes VI-VIII)				
Rural	13.85	7.82	21.48	63.07
Urban	6.82	5.68	12.58	36.93
Total	20.57	13.50	34.06	100.00
High (Classes IX-X)				
Rural	5.71	2.71	8.42	53.32
Urban	3.96	2.84	6.80	44.68
Total	9.67	5.55	15.22	100.00
Hr Sec (Classes XI-XII)				
Rural	1.46	0.62	2.08	38.03
Urban	2.05	1.34	3.39	43.70
Total	3.51	1.96	5.47	100.00

Source: Sixth All India Educational Survey, NCERT, 1998

- Intra female rural urban divide is large. Considering 75% of our population still lives in rural areas, 73% of all girls enrolled at primary level, 58% in Classes VI-VIII, 49% in Classes IX-X and 29% girls in Class XI-XII are rural.
- At the primary level there are 31 million rural girls enrolled compared to 11 million urban girls. There are 8 million rural and 6 million urban girls in Class VI-VIII, 2.7 million rural and 2.8 million urban girls in Classes IX-X and only 0.72 million rural girls compared to 1.77 million urban girls in Classes XI-XII (Nayar, 2000, based on Sixth All India Educational Survey 1998).
- Further, educational participation of rural girls depletes with every successive higher level. For every 100 girls in Class I, there are only 45 in Class V, 23 in Class VIII, 13 in Class X and only 3 in Class XII, the corresponding figures being 74 in Class V, 63 in Class VIII, 46 in Class X and 23 in Class XII among urban girls (Ibid).

Table 3.13 Number of students per 100 primary students in Classes V, VIII, X and XII by area and by sex in 1993

	Class I	Class V	Class VIII	Class X	Class XII
1	2	3	4	5	6
Total	100	54.63	36.27	25.03	9.68
Boys	100	56.76	39.55	28.50	11.18
Girls	100	51.90	31.07	20.57	7.76
Rural Total	100	48.89	27.97	17.73	4.77
Rural Boys	100	51.67	31.89	21.29	5.97
Rural girls	100	45.21	22.78	13.03	3.18
Urban Total	100	75.25	66.08	51.24	27.32
Urban Boys	100	76.36	69.03	56.28	31.22
Urban Girls	100	74.00	62.73	45.50	22.89

Source, Sixth All India Educational Survey

Rural girls, thus, get eliminated from the qualifying rounds and reach as far as the village hedge. Ten to twelve years of general education is a pre-requisite for entry into second and third level technical and professional education including teacher training and thus the perennial shortage of women teachers in rural areas. Girls are less mobile than the boys on account of the parental concern for their personal safety and thus utilize educational facilities available within the revenue village or in its sub-units or habitations (an average of two habitations per village). For instance, very often a revenue village is spread over several kilometers as in Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and the same situation prevails in mountainous and forest regions elsewhere which are often divided by physical and social distance, as observed, between the upper caste/class inhabitants and the scheduled castes and tribes. The well-off upper caste form the core and the disadvantaged sections are at the periphery of a village, the school is often located in the core part of the village. The SC and ST parents at times are intimidated into not sending their children to school in some parts of the northern plains (DPEP Gender Studies, 1993-94).

Educational lag of rural girls is linked to under-development of rural areas in terms of development infrastructure especially convenient, safe means of transport, lack of drinking water, cheap fuel, sanitation, and health and education infrastructure. The problem is acute in small sized villages and in sparsely populated remote areas. Gender and rural poverty combine to add to the burden of the girl child whose direct and indirect earnings and work is needed by the families whereas little boys are let off.

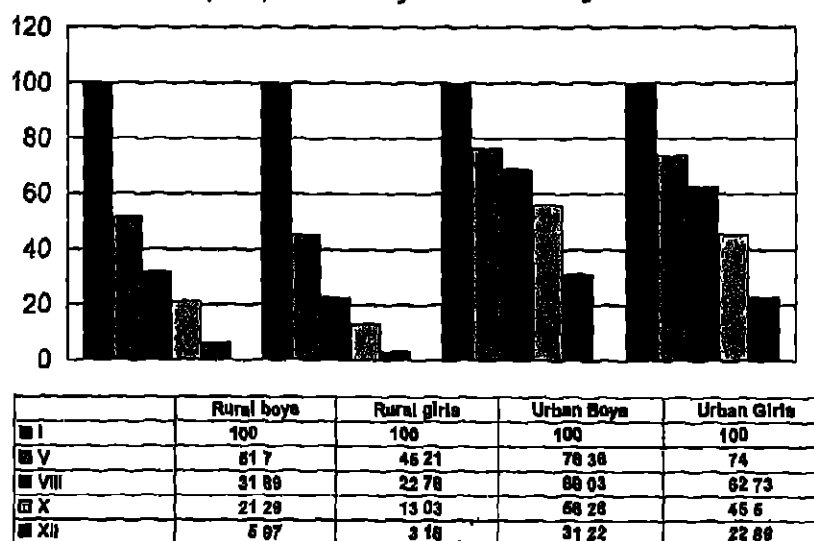
Fig 15

**Percentage girls among children enrolled in school
and among non enrolled children in 1997**



Fig 16

**Number of students per 100 primary students in Classes
V, VIII, X & XII by area and by sex**



Sixth All India Educational Survey, NCERT, 1998

Drop Out Rate

There is increased enrolment and improved retention. The dropout rate for the primary Classes (I-V) has gone down from 62% to 39% for boys and from 71% to 42% for girls during the period 1960-61 to 1999-2000. At the middle stage the dropout rate has come down from 75% to 52% for boys and from 85% to 58% for girls during the same period. The male female gaps in dropout rates are not very as in the past which augurs well for educational participation of girls.

To state it in terms of retention, of the 100 children who join Class I in school, only 60 remain in the system by Class V, 45 reach Class VIII and only 32 reach Class X, the corresponding figures for girls being 58, 42 and 29 and for boys 61, 48 and 33, respectively (See Tables 7 & 8 at the Appendix)

Table 3.14 : Gross Drop Out Rate at the Elementary Stage in India (1960-61 to 1999-2000)

Year	Primary (Classes I-V)			Middle (Classes I-VIII)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys Total	Girls	
1960-61	61.7	70.9	64.9	75.0	85.0	78.3
1970-71	64.5	70.9	67.0	74.6	83.4	77.9
1980-81	56.2	62.5	58.7	68.0	79.4	72.7
1990-91	40.1	46.0	42.6	59.1	65.1	60.9
1999-2000*	38.7	42.3	40.3	52.00	58.0	54.5

Source : Department of Education, MHRD, GOI, Annual Report 2000-2001

* Provisional figures

Due to enhanced availability of primary schools, extensive mobilisation carried out for enrolment under EFA projects, incentives like free noon meal, free books etc. the impact of the Total Literacy Campaigns and pro girl child policies and programmes, the enrolments during the 1990s have picked up but the dropout rate has not declined very appreciably. The holding power of the school is in question and the strategies need to be inclusive keeping in view the fact that children drop out both on account of domestic poverty and responsibilities, parental illiteracy and lack of motivation and a defaulting school, uninteresting, shabby, often without any infrastructure and insufficient number of teachers or absentee teachers. Parents also tend to withdraw girls in absence of any female teachers, the shortage being acute in rural areas. The last available figures indicate that the drop out rate for SC/ST children is substantially higher than that for general groups, the same being true for rural girls. Data gaps exist, also the drop out rate in the absence of statistics on the repetition rates are as gross as the enrolment ratios though for different reasons.

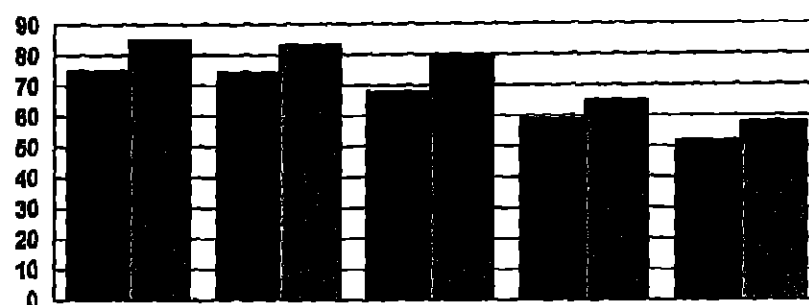
The Inter State Variations

Dropout Rate in Classes I-V

- All centrally administered union territories with the exception of Dadar and Nagar Haveli have registered drop out rate of below 6% as also Goa and Kerala.
- The union territories of Chandigarh has registered minus drop out rate of -66.70 and so do Kerala with -7.05, and Pondicherry with -6.32 Lakshadweep.
- In Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Punjab, Karnataka, the dropout rate for girls is lower than that of boys.
- Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Uttar Pradesh, Tripura, West Bengal have drop out rates above 50% and Manipur, Andhra Pradesh.

Fig. 17

**Drop out rates at elementary stage in India by sex
1960-61 to 1999-2000**

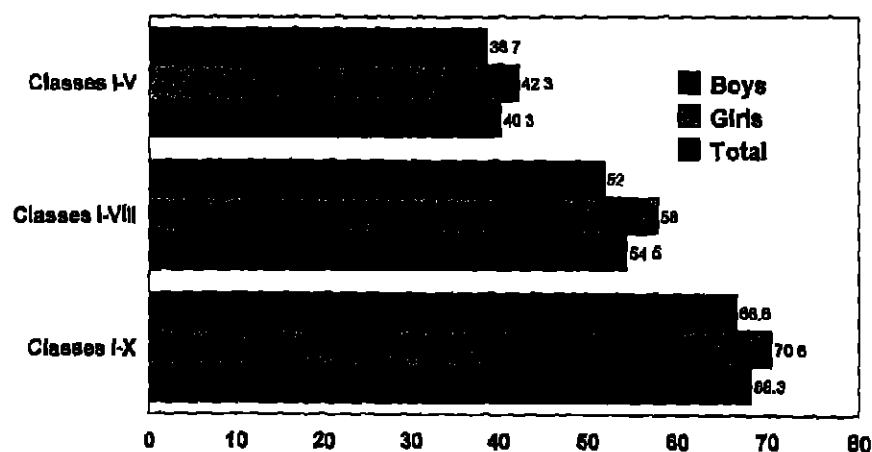


	1960-61	1970-71	1980-81	1990-91	1999-2000
Boys	75	74.8	68	59.1	52
Girls	85	83.4	79.4	66.1	58

Source: Annual Report, Department of Education, MHRD, 1999-2000

Fig. 18

Drop out rates at school stage in India by sex in 1999-2000



Source: Annual Report, Department of Education, MHRD, 1999-2000

Dropout Rate in Classes I-VIII

- As noted above, only 42 % girls and 48% boys who join Class I survive till Class VIII
- The *inter state disparities* are large, ranging from minus rates in Chandigarh and Kerala for all children and for girls in Lakshadweep Meghalaya has a drop out rate of 78% for all children followed by West Bengal (70.88, and Sikkim (70.33%)
- Drop out rates for girls are higher than those for boys by and large Bihar has the highest drop out rate for girls at 81% and these rates are between 70 to 78 percent in Assam), Meghalaya (, and West Bengal and are between 60 to 70 % in Andhra Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Gujarat, Karnataka, Mizoram, Orissa, Sikkim, Tripura and Dadar and Nagar Haveli

Looking at the exorbitant drop out at the Elementary Stage (Classes I-VIII), it is unlikely that we achieve universal of elementary education. The mean years of schooling for our population as a whole are 2.4, 3.5 years for males and only 1.2 years for females. The burgeoning out of school population in the age group 6- 18 years is a testimony to our failure to provide access to high quality primary and upper primary education and the possibility of universalizing general education of ten years is even more remote.

Internal efficiency

Table 3.15 : Rates of Efficiency (Primary Stage)

	Promotion rate	Dropout rate	Years Input per Graduate
Boys	67.8	25.6	7.2
Girls	67.3	26.0	25.8
Total	67.6	25.8	7.5

Source : Sub-Table 18 of EFA-2000 assessment. Core EFA Indicators, Department of education, MHRD, 1999

As the above table shows, there is very negligible male female difference in the Promotion Rate or the Dropout Rate, only girls take on an average an year longer to complete five years of primary schooling compared to the boys.

Girls' Enrolment, Retention and Achievement. EFA Projects

The DPEP Aggarwal (1999) notices that the participation of girls has improved considerably in the 42 Phase I DPEP districts. The share of girls enrolments has increased from 45.55 % in 1995-96 to 46.3 % in 1997-98. Index of Gender Equity is more than 95 for 21 of the 42 districts, is between 85 to 95 in another 16 districts. There were five districts of Madhya Pradesh, namely, Guna, Tikamgarh, Sidhi, Dhar and Rajgarh where additional efforts are needed to reduce the inequities between the boys and the girls. The strategy of Alternative Schooling is expected to overcome the gender related inequities even in the most educationally backward tribal dominated districts. The minimisation of gender based inequities in primary education would result in improved female literacy in the DPEP districts which were selected from among the low female literacy districts. The Project goal to reduce differences among gender and social groups to less than 5% by the end of the Project appears to be in sight. However, he warns against complacency as he feels a lot needs to be done to improve the participation and retention of girls. A variety of innovative and cost effective strategies need to be evolved to reach out to children in isolated small habitations and habitations with concentration of ST children, working children and the disabled children. Additionally, development of locally relevant curriculum and teacher training to handle first generation learners as also greater interaction between

the school and the community through frequent meetings with the Village education Committees, women's groups and other community based agencies

Srivastava (1999) study of the internal efficiency of Primary Education in 40 districts of Phase I of the Districts Primary Education Programme (DPEP) states that in general, the gender difference in respect internal efficiency is small in most of the districts. In 24 districts, the coefficient of efficiency in the case of girls is not very different from that of the boys, the difference between the two being less than three points. In 14 districts where the coefficient for girls is less than that for boys, ten are in Madhya Pradesh. However, in Districts Raisen and Rewa, the coefficient of efficiency for girls is substantially higher than that for boys. As regards the Cohort Dropout Rate, of the 40 districts studied, the drop out rate of girls exceeds that of boys in 25 districts, is almost equal to that of boys in 5 districts and less than that of boys in 10 districts. Only in 11 out of 40 districts, the dropout rate of girls is 5.0 or more percentage points.

A Mid-term Learning Assessment Survey (MAS) by the NCERT in 1997 in all 42 districts of Phase I of DPEP indicated significant improvement in language and mathematics although a great deal remains to be done. The goal of reducing differences between gender groups to less than 55 has been realised in almost all districts across the classes in both the subjects. The result, however, are not so encouraging with regard to social groups.

Shiksha Karmi Project: Launched in 1987 with SIDA assistance, the *Shiksha Karmi* project (SKP) of Rajasthan is an innovative community based primary education experiment for remote and difficult villages with dysfunctional primary schools and endemic teacher absenteeism. The regular teachers are replaced with local teachers, the *Shiksha Karmis*, who are less qualified but are continually trained through pre service, in service and refresher programmes by the Shiksha Karmi Sahyogis (Field Coordinators) and Supervisors who are eternally on the move working with the Day schools and the *Prehar Pathshalas* (Evening Schools). Besides the improvement of the school environment, augmentation of the school infrastructure and increasing enrolment and retention of all children, the Shiksha Karmi sees education of girls as a serious challenge in these extremely low literacy blocks of Rajasthan. At the grassroots level, the SKP works through the Panchayat Samities, *Shiksha Karmi Sahyogis*, subject specialists of NGOs and the village communities. The *Prehar Pathshalas* provide condensed formal school curriculum and specially designed learning materials to educate the out of school children who are unable to attend the regular school for some reason or the other. Presently 22,359 girls (who form 71% of the learners in these centres) are benefitting from these *Prehar Pathshalas*. Many of them look overage and hence perhaps feel shy to go to the day school.

The dedication of the SKP personnel is exemplar to say the least. They wander like the proverbial minstrels spreading the light of knowledge, often staying the night in the remote villages when needed. The SKP villages have now batches of girls who have passed Class V and they and their guardians want these schools to be upgraded to middle stage. The pride of a village visited, was the woman Shiksha Karmi who had upgraded her qualifications to high school in the last several years. Currently, the SKP is functional in 125 Blocks spread over the 29 districts of Rajasthan, catering to the needs of 165000 children of whom majority are first generation learners.

Lok Jumbish : Lok Jumbish (LJ) signifies a vigorous peoples' movement and views education as an instrumentality of women's equality. The LJ strategies that have evolved over a period consist of People's participation, Decentralisation, gender Equity, Improvement of teacher status, Quality in all programmes and activities, HRD, and Inbuilt review and evaluation. Education of Girls is its load star and women's empowerment and involvement is seen both as a means to universalisation of primary education of eight years and as an end in itself. The Project really believes that women hold up half the sky. A highly decentralized block based- village centred project, women make up half of

its functionaries at all levels of management, At the field level level, there are two women functionaries to one male functionary Processes are very important in this project and the pace has to be set by the village people, by the learners, by the communities The Lok Jumbish staff, highly professionalised move into communities, win their confidence, form them into groups for school mapping and later school building committees, women and men in equal numbers It is hard work at times but ultimately, the schools and the schooling of their children becomes the concern and responsibility of the village itself, the parents, the elected members and all others It is really an attempt to return primary education where it belongs, the people and the communities themselves There is an attempt to make curriculum interesting, relevant and flexible, leaving a lot of room for the teachers to innovate Besides working with the regular government schools, a major innovation of LJ is its *Sahaj Shiksha* (Non Formal education Programme), in which the main takers are the girls and boys from very disadvantaged groups and remote areas *Mahila Shikshan Kendras* (Women's education centres), *Adhyapika Manch* (Women Teachers' Forum), gender training of teachers and teacher educators, *Balika Shivirs* (Girl Child camps), and of late life skills approach and gender sensitization of boys in similar camps are several innovations that make Lok Jumbish a ventable movement for women and the poor

The LJ sees educational access for girls as paramount, the educational content and process as a means to enhancing the self esteem of girls and women for taking hold of their own lives and for participating in all social institutions and processes with dignity and self confidence *Samvadika* (The Core Gender Group), meets regularly to understand all dimensions of gender equity and women's empowerment and for sharing field experiences and for ever working out new strategies The Lok Jumbish is currently working in 75 Blocks in 27 districts of Rajasthan The State Government has decided to start DPEP in 19 districts The remaining 13 districts will be exclusively covered by the Lok Jumbish

Besides, *Saraswati Yojana* (SY) is operational in Rajasthan since 1994-95 in order to keep the education of the Girl Child Focus of all educational activities Under this scheme, local women who have passed Class VIII are given training and financial assistance to run courtyard schools in their homes At present about 1220 SY centre are functional in which about 10,000 children are studying. This scheme is in addition to the centrally sponsored scheme of Non Formal education (NFE)

Bihar Education Project (BEP): This UNICEF assisted Primary Education Project has likewise done considerable work to promote the universalisation of primary education through the formal schools, the NFE and the very innovative *Jagjagi Centres* for out of school girls and educational and residential economic empowerment programmes run by the *Mahila Samakhya* complement of the BEP The transformation of shy reticent tribal and folk girls into alert and confident young women complete with literacy, health and economic skills and laced with Judo and Karate training is something to be seen to be believed

Total Literacy Campaigns and Girls' Education

The National Literacy Mission (NLM) was launched as a societal and technology mission in 1988 for imparting functional literacy to 80 million illiterate adults in 15-35 age group by 1995 bulk of whom were women The NLM adopted the Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) as a principal strategy for achieving universal literacy The TLC is an area specific, time bound, volunteer based mass campaign, built through mass mobilization and support of the Central and State Governments, district administrations, non-governmental organizations, voluntary agencies and people from all walks of life (MHRD, 1993)

The NLM is now committed to bringing about total literacy by the year 2005. So far, 450 districts have been covered by the TLCs, 250 districts have moved into the Post Literacy stage and 65 have launched programmes of Continuing Education (MHRD, 1999). Analysis of the TLC campaigns shows that women form the bulk of the beneficiaries, the content and process of these campaigns needs to be studied thoroughly from the point of view of gender equity and awareness. The few studies in this area point out the infrastructural and the planning and management deficiencies of adult learning centres. At least one study brings out very clearly the continued presentation of women in gender stereotyped roles in the literacy materials. Their inadequacy regarding lack of information on the legal rights of women both among men and women, and a lack of gender sensitivity needs to be probed into. The materials produced by an NGO, more diversified in their packaging, were found very radical in their messages and those of the government as somewhat reactionary. The content and process of the TLCs requires immediate attention with a view to making them powerful agents of women's empowerment.

Evaluation studies are indicating that literacy apart, the TLC is becoming a movement for social awakening and social change. Among the takers, majority are women and they have successfully launched protest movements directed at problems like alcoholism and its allied ills of violence and abuse. These women have learnt to ask for provision of basic amenities of water, sanitation, housing and wage work. Above all these campaigns have created a definite demand for primary education especially for girls' education.

Conversely, mobilisation and organisation of women at the grassroots around their immediate concerns and needs by the State and by the non official agencies and organisations, has generated a demand for functional literacy, legal awareness and above all education of their children.

Education of Out of School Girls

A premier area of concern in the education of the girl child is the formulation of action programmes in the area of elementary and secondary education focusing on the education of out of school girls. A major chunk of girls in the age groups of 10-18 are out of school.

Table 3.76 Estimated Number of Non Enrolled Children by Sex at the Elementary Stage in 1997
(in thousands)

	6-11 Years (Classes I-V)			11-14 Years (Classes VI-VIII)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Estimated Population in the age group in 1997	62759	58403 (48.20)	121162	35580	31966 (47.32)	67546
Enrolment in 1997-98	61329	47453 (43.62)	108782	23646	15,841 (40.12)	39487
Non enrolled children in 1997-98	1430	10950 (88.45)	12380	11934	16125 (57.47)	28059

Source: Selected Educational Statistics 1997-98, Department of Education, MHRD
Figures in parenthesis indicate percentage girls to total.

- With respect to the UEE, the estimated out of school children in the age group 6-14 years was more than 40 million in 1997-98, of these, 67% are girls
- In the age group 6-11 years (Classes I-V), there were more than twelve million children out of school, of whom 89% were girls
- In the age group 11-14, estimated out of school children were to the tune of 28 million, of whom 58% were girls
- In absolute terms, a total of 27 million girls were out of school, 11 million in the primary age group and 16 million in the upper primary age group
- Assuming that there are 20-25% overage / underage children in the system, the number of out school children in the specific age groups could even be higher
- The NSSO (1998) data on attendance rate estimates 89.64 million children not attending school in 1995-96, 65.52 million in the age group 6-11 years and 24.12 million in the age group 11-14 years (Quoted from Takroo, 1999)
- The MHRD Draft EFA 2000 Assessment on Core EFA Indicators puts this figure at 35.06 million in the age group 6-11 years after allowing for 21.54% underage and overage children in Classes I-V. None the less, it is clear that the problem exists even if different figures are arrived by different agencies

Till very recently, girls in this age group were not covered by any government programme for health care and nutrition either. Presently these girls are being addressed through the following programmes

The NFE (Non Formal Education) programme of the Department of Education, MHRD as a centrally sponsored scheme for the out of school children in the age group 6-14 years. The scheme is being implemented by the state governments and several NGOs (non governmental organisations). The Centre gives assistance to the state governments on 50:50 basis for coeducational centres and on 90:10 basis for exclusively girls' centres. The NGOs get 100% assistance. Presently, more than 290,000 NFE centres are running but these largely cater to the primary level. A total of seven million children are enrolled in these courses and girls form about 40% of those enrolled. So far the NFE Programme has remained pitched at the primary level. There is merit in strongly operationalising NFE Part II aimed at providing middle school level education to children for accessing post primary education to girls in rural areas and in urban slums.

The National Open School (NOS), runs courses for out of school girls and women as well as for other categories of employed personnel who are desirous of completing the ten year/secondary level open school course and higher general and vocational secondary education course. The NOS also conducts a course for adolescent girls and adult women named the *Paripurana Mahila Yojana* which covers a vast range areas of women's empowerment to include legal literacy, health and nutrition general awareness and others. The NOS has worked out a course equivalent to Class 3 and are presently working on Class V syllabus to enable the neo literate to attain primary level competencies. Further, girls and women can take up the middle and secondary school examinations of the State Boards as private candidates. Some states have already started State Open Schools as in Tamil Nadu and Haryana and girls are utilizing these opportunities.

The Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB) has a major scheme of Condensed Courses for girls and women in the age group 15-35 years from among the disadvantaged sections of rural and urban areas who for some reason or the other have either missed schooling or have dropped out of the system. These are two year courses leading to Primary Middle, Secondary and Vocational education which are awarded to NGOs through the State Social Welfare Boards all over the country.

The Department of Women and Child Development (MHRD) also has a scheme for adolescent girls entitled *Balika Yojana* being carried out in some blocks at the ICDS centres. These girls are given inputs of education, health and nutrition education among others, and, are expected to help the Anganwadi workers in their tasks. The Ministry of Health and Family Welfare also has a very large programme for adolescent girls as part of its Reproductive and Child health (RCH) Programme. The Ministry of Labour likewise is targeting out of school girls and women through some of its programmes. In the Ninth Five year Plan, provision has been made to fund and support innovative educational programme for adolescent out of school girls in the age group 12-18 years in the Department of Education, MHRD.

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Second Level General, Vocational and Technical Education

Secondary education is a critical sector for future development of girls. It is here that diversification of curricula and streaming occurs. Secondary education has both preparatory and terminal functions. At the secondary and senior secondary stage, the number of schools have increased from 7,416 in 1950-51 to over 108 thousand in 1998-99. The enrolment of girls at this stage increased from 0.2 million to 10.5 million during the same period. The share of girls has increased from 13.3% in 1950-51 to 38% in 1998-99 at the secondary stage. Only 39% girls in this age group participate in secondary education compared to 59% boys.

The lower participation of girls at secondary and senior secondary stage and in vocational and technical and professional education is a cause for concern. Secondary, vocational, and technical education is largely an urban middle class phenomenon. Rural and poor population has lower access and participation in these areas. There is a big gender gap as girls are lagging behind than boys and more so the girls from the disadvantaged groups are the worst off. At this stage girls lag behind not only in numbers but the type of courses they opt for and receive training in. Girls find it easy to opt for and are concentrated in courses such as arts and humanities and fewer girls enter into courses like science, mathematics and technology.

Vocationalisation of Higher Secondary Education

This Centrally sponsored programme was introduced in 1976 to train the young students in middle level marketable skills and to reduce aimless entry into higher education. The scheme was expected to cover 50% of the secondary school graduates. The scheme was able to cover only about 2.5% of students entering the higher secondary stage till 1986. By 1996-97, a capacity for 935,000 students has been created in 6476 schools. In terms of coverage, only 11.51% of the total enrolment at the higher secondary level have joined the vocational stream in general education at this level. The scheme is presently implemented by all the states and union territories except Lakshadweep. In all 18,709 vocational sections have been approved in the 6,476 schools offering vocational education. Vocational Courses Being Offered in General Higher Secondary Education are:

Second Level Technical Education

Presently, there are 4,171 Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) with a total enrolment of 440 thousand, out of which 13.4% per cent are girls. Of these ITIs, 214 are exclusively meant for women and others have Women's Wings. In principle, all ITIs are open to women. In 1066 Polytechnics, there are in all 357 thousand students, girls forming only 16.8 per cent of the enrolment. (MHRD, 1999-2000). Further, there is one National Institute for Vocational Training (NVTI) and four Regional Vocational Training Institutes (RVTIs) for women exclusively with a total capacity of 1496 students (1995-96 Annual Report of the Ministry of Labour). Women also receive training under the Apprenticeship training scheme of the Ministry of Labour, accounting for 2.6% of the total no of 272,755 trainees.

Higher Education

There are 7494 colleges for general education, 540 engineering colleges, 755 medical colleges, 818 Colleges of Teacher Training, and 308 universities including institutions of national importance and research institutions serving more than six million students and scholars out of whom 39 percent are girls, their number having gone up by more than four times since independence. There are 1066 Polytechnics, 4171 and 1319 Teacher Training Schools (1999-2000 Departmental Statistics, MHRD).

Girls have made tremendous progress in higher education since 1950-51. Girls account for 3.08 million out of 7.73 million students as per 2000-2001 statistics of the Department of Education, MHRD. The percentage share of girls amongst the students in higher education has risen from 10% to 40%. The highest percentage of girls to total in higher education is in Kerala (62.24%) and the lowest is for Bihar (18.32%). Presently, there are 189 universities, 42 deemed to be universities, 5 institutions established through state and central legislation and 11381 colleges including 1520 women colleges in the country in addition to unrecognised institutions. In 2000-2001, there were 7.73 million students enrolled in higher education, 1.28 million in university departments and 6.5 million in affiliated colleges. Of the total 81 percent were concentrated in three faculties namely Arts (40%), Science (19%), and Commerce (22%). Eighty seven percent of the women students were enrolled in the non professional faculties (Arts, Science and Commerce).

States and UTs above National Average of 40%

Kerala (62.24%); Goa (59.7%), Chandigarh (56.71%), Punjab (53.32%), Pondicherry (53.18%), Karnataka (52.47%), Andaman & Nicobar Islands (52.01%), Delhi (49.22%), Tamil Nadu (49.18%), Manipur (47.22%), Meghalaya (47.30%), Daman and Diu (46.27%), Gujarat (45.69%), Mizoram (42.15%), Nagaland (42.79%), Haryana (42.57%), West Bengal (41.04%), Himachal Pradesh (40.97%), Tripura (39.38%).

States and UTs below the National Average

Sikkim (38.97%), Madhya Pradesh (38.44%), Maharashtra (37.71%), Jammu & Kashmir (37.54%), Andhra Pradesh (36.04%), Rajasthan (34.65%), Uttar Pradesh (34.05%), Assam (33.86%), Arunachal Pradesh (28.46%), Orissa (24.99%), and Bihar (18.32%).

In 1998-99, girls form 40% of the students enrolled in B.A./B.Sc./B.Com, 38% of the M.B.B.S students, 40% of those studying in M.A./M.Sc./M.Com, 43% of the B.Ed. trainees, 47% of the student teachers enrolled in J.B.T. courses, 30% of the students enrolled for the doctoral programmes, 19.5% in Engineering and Technology courses, 16.8% in Polytechnics, and 13% in ITIs (1999-2000). The share of girls in various faculties has increased very substantially in Arts, Science, Commerce, Education and Medicine in the last four decades. However, girls continue to be way behind in Engineering and Technology (19.5%), and in second level technical education institutions except in teacher training schools. They form 16.8% of all students in Polytechnics and a mere 13% in the Industrial Training Institutions.

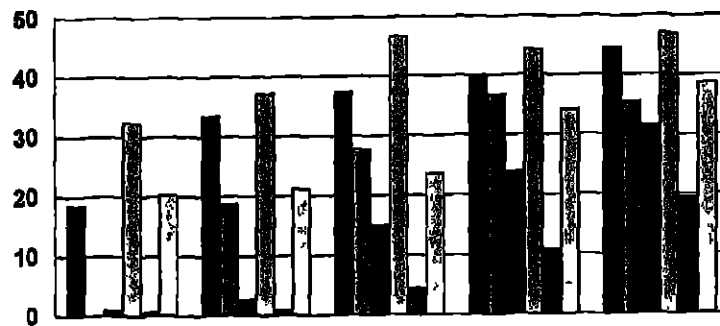
Table 3-1) Enrolment of girls as percentage to total enrolment in higher education by faculty

Year	Arts	Science	Commerce	Education	Engg./Tech	Medicine
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1960-61	18.6	0.0	1.1	32.5	0.8	20.4
1970-71	33.5	18.8	2.8	37.3	1.0	21.3
1980-81	37.5	27.9	15.2	46.7	4.6	23.8
1990-91	39.8	36.8	24.0	44.4	10.9	34.3
1998-99	44.7	35.6	31.6	47.0	19.5	38.0

Source: Department of Education, MHRD

Fig 19

Enrolment of girls as percentage to total enrolment in higher education by faculty during 1960-61 and 1998-99

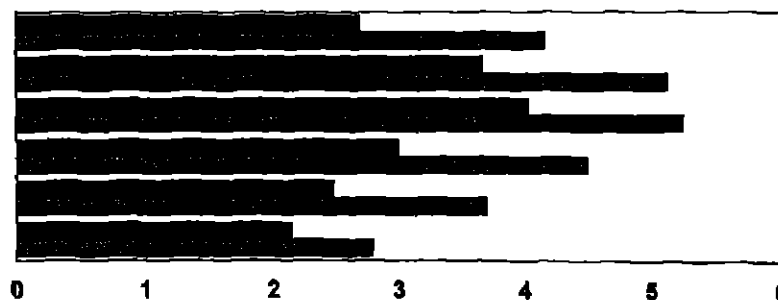


	1960-61	1970-71	1980-81	1990-91	1998-99
Arts	18.8	33.6	37.5	39.8	44.7
Science	0	18.8	27.9	36.8	36.8
Commerce	1.1	2.8	16.2	24	31.8
Education	32.8	37.3	46.7	44.4	47
Engg./Tech	0.9	1	4.8	10.9	18.5
Medicine	20.4	21.3	23.8	34.3	38.8

Fig 20

Total fertility rate and mean number of children ever born by residence and by education

(NFHS Survey 1992-93)



	urban	rural	illiterate	literate-mid	middle	high sch. +
Fertility Rate	2.7	3.67	4.03	3.01	2.49	2.18
Children Ever	4.16	5.13	5.26	4.5	3.71	2.8

Analysis

- (i) Secondary education is available only 39 girls out of 100 girls in the age group compared to 59 per hundred for boys
- (ii) Girls are behind not only in numbers but the type of education they receive or opt for it is qualitatively different from that of boys, and does little to alter their subsidiary position in the occupational structure. Girls go in primarily for soft courses in arts and humanities at the higher secondary stage thus limiting their occupational choices and chances. These choices are dictated by their actual or expected adult roles as mothers and as wives. Very little consideration is paid to their potential as productive workers. Curriculum continues to be gender stereotyped despite the stated policy of undifferentiated curricula.
- (iii) Three quarters of our population lives in rural areas but only 11,642 higher secondary schools are in rural area as compared to 11882 in urban areas. Access of rural girls diminishes at every successive higher level of education. Whereas 87 per cent of 587,247 villages have a primary school, only 22 per cent are covered by middle schools, 8 per cent have a secondary school and about 2 per cent villages have a higher secondary school within the village (Sixth All India Educational Survey, NCERT, 1993). The rural girls get eliminated from the qualifying rounds and reach at best as far as the village hedge.
- (iv) In 1993, there were only 0.72 million rural girls at the higher secondary stage compared to 1.77 million girls in urban areas. At the secondary level (Classes X-XII) also, the urban girls enrolled numbered 2.80 million compared to 2.71 million in rural areas. There are unserved areas in the country where there is no school for 10 to 20 km. As in some tribal belts, desert and hilly regions with low population density. Girls from such areas are hardly expected to attend schools located at far off distance.
- (v) Urban middle class girls and women have benefited disproportionately from available vocational, technical and professional education facilities on account of their higher general education base and better physical access to these largely urban located institutions. Rural women and girls have little chance of entering formal or non-formal vocational education and training institution on account of poor literacy and general education base and still poorer physical access. Also, there are indications that gender stereotyping of vocational and technical courses are hard to break but not impossible. Urban upper middle class girls from professional parent/s families are breaking new ground and are entering all scientific and technical fields, although their number is small. Gender lines are hard to cross in rural areas or small towns. Some attempts are being made to induct women in traditional male crafts in a few non-formal skill development programmes.
- (vi) Educational and vocational guidance services either do not exist or are essentially inactive in girl's institutions. There is further lack of investment in physical facilities and inadequacy of teaching in girl's institutions. Poor quality of teaching in science and mathematics at lower levels dissuades and disqualifies many girls from vocational and technical education. A good foundation of mathematics and science is essential for all technology based, paramedical courses, commerce and agriculture and even some of the home science based courses. According to some studies, girls opting for non-traditional courses find employment difficult on account of the employer's bias and rigid ideas of gender appropriate roles. Personal secretaries to industrialists and top managers can be female but not industrial supervisory and management cadres.
- (vii) The existing vocational training facilities for out of school women and girls are very inadequate considering the massive requirement. The rural lag is most prominent. Most of these training institutions are located in urban or semi-urban areas, although the training schemes are intended for rural and urban poor women, both. Rural women are constrained by lack of time (with a 15-19 hour work day) and resources to commute long distances away from their homes. Residential facilities and child care services are offered only in very few training programmes. Women in dire

poverty can ill offered the opportunity cost. The benefits of most schemes accrue to the relatively better off women.

- (viii) There is lack of a coherent overall frame for vocational and technical education and training for women. The projects and programmes suffer from over centralization and bureaucratic delays. The quality of outcomes of each project differs on account of a multiplicity of agencies, governmental and non-governmental, that are implementing these schemes. The total effort appears piecemeal, ad-hoc and covers very small numbers and is expensive. Follow up, being weak or non-existent, even the organizers at times are at a loss to know anything about the impact of their training. The ministry of labour has set up a placement cell which is a positive step in this direction.
- (ix) Considering the massive education and skill deficits of rural women and girls and the continued under development of rural areas, there is need for reordering development priorities and strategies. Gender sensitive development planning would require not only redeployment and re-allocation of national resources and relocation of training facilities, but also creation of employment opportunities and setting up of agro-based industries and other small scale industries in rural areas. Rural schools, roads, rural electrification, safe drinking water, health and housing, sanitation, cheap fodder and fuel are the minimum essential conditions for redressing the educational and social disadvantage of rural women and girls.

Women Teachers

The number of teachers at the school stage have increased phenomenally. During 1950-51 to 1999-2000, at the primary stage, their number has gone up from 538 thousand to 1.92 million, at the middle stage their number has gone up from 86 thousand to 1.3 million. As regards high / higher secondary stage their number has gone up 127 thousand to 1.7 million. Whereas the number of primary teachers has increased more than three times during this period, for the middle schools there is more than ten times increase and for high / higher secondary stage also there is nearly nine times increase during this period (See Table 3.18).

Table 3.18: Number of School Teachers by Sex in India 1950-51 to 1999-2000 (in thousands)

Year	Primary			Middle			High/Hr Secondary		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1950-51	538	456	82 (15)	86	73	13 (15)	127	107	20 (16)
1960-61	742	615	127 (17)	345	262	83 (24)	296	234	62 (21)
1970-71	1080	835	225 (21)	638	463	175 (27)	629	474	155 (25)
1980-81	1363	1021	342 (25)	851	598	253 (30)	926	669	257 (28)
1990-91	1616	1143	473 (29)	1073	717	356 (33)	1334	917	417 (31)
1999-2000*	1919	1235	684 (36)	1298	829	469 (36)	1720	1142	578 (34)

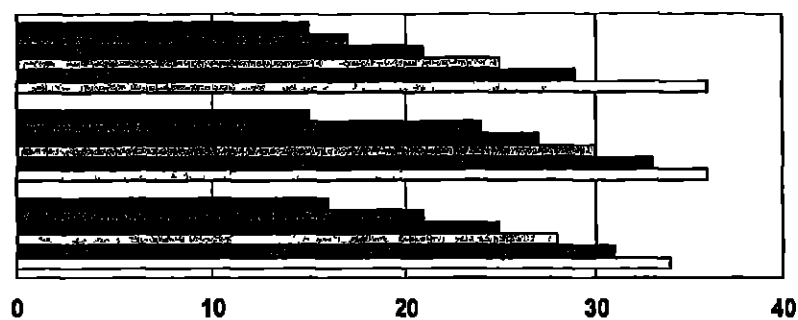
Source: Department of Education, MHRD and Selected Educational Statistics, Various volumes and Annual Report, 2000-2001.

(Figures in parenthesis indicate percentage share of female teachers to total teachers at each stage)

* Provisional

Fig 21

**Females as percentage to total number of teachers at the school stage
1950-51 to 1999-2000**

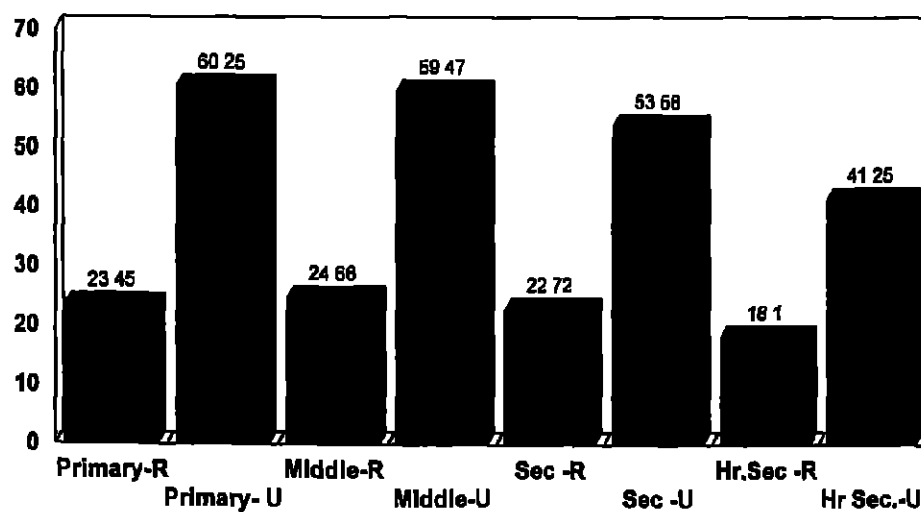


	Primary	Middle	Sec/Hr Sec
■ 1950-51	15	15	18
▨ 1960-61	17	24	21
■ 1970-71	21	27	25
□ 1980-81	25	30	28
■ 1990-91	29	33	31
□ 1999-2000	38	36	34

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD & Annual Report, 2000-2001

Fig 22

**Rural Urban Divide
Percentage female teachers to total at the school stage in
India 1993-94**



Source: Sixth All India Education Survey, NCERT 1993

The primary stage continues to suffer from shortage of teachers in that the phenomenon of multi grade teachers with two to three teachers managing a primary school is a common sight in rural areas. Under the scheme Operation Blackboard (OB) an attempt was made to phase out single teacher schools and their number substantially decreased as reported in the Sixth All India Educational Survey. In the OB scheme while phasing out single teacher schools, it was mandatory that the second teacher to be added under this central scheme would be female in case the earlier teacher was male. Many states made sincere effort to place women teachers in rural schools under the scheme and even an increase in their quotas in teacher training institutions at the time of recruitment. This has borne results in that the women teachers have improved their share in the total from 15% to 36 % at the primary level, 15 % to 36 % at the middle stage, and 16% to 34 % at the high / higher secondary stage.

Inter state disparities are extremely large. In 1999-2000, the percentage of female teachers to total in the states and union territories ranged from

- 19% in Bihar to 98% in Chandigarh at the primary stage,
- 15% in Orissa to 90 % in Chandigarh; and
- 15% in Bihar to 84% in Chandigarh

Rural Urban Gap

The aggregate picture, however, hides the continued shortage of female teachers in rural areas as is evident in Table 14. While urban schools are overstaffed and crowded with women teachers, the rural schools have both staff shortage and very low presence of female teachers. This factor is aggravated in low female literacy states and continues to hamper educational participation of girls especially at the post primary stages. As field studies show there is a clear demand for more women teachers at all levels especially at the post primary stages. Parents do not appear to be averse to coeducation but feel that presence of women on the teaching / administrative staff of these schools is a must. During some field visits even the all male teachers faculty of rural schools expressed that having one or more women teacher is necessary even in primary schools as girls feel shy and do not open up much and are unable to share their problems and anxieties. There was a general feeling that women teachers especially at the post puberty stage can enhance the self confidence of girls through systematic counselling, besides being good role models (Nayar, 1993, 1995, 1996-97, 1992-98, Jha, 2000).

Table 3.14 Percentage share of female teachers to total by level and by rural urban areas in 1993

Area	Primary	Middle	Secondary	Hr Sec
Rural	23.45	24.66	22.72	18.10
Urban	60.25	59.47	53.58	41.25
Total	31.41	35.08	33.92	31.57

Source, Sixth All India educational Survey, NCERT, 1998

The rural urban disparities in the share of women teachers across the states and the union territories are extremely worrying and disheartening considering there is persistent demand for female teachers at all levels of school education especially at the middle and the secondary stage.

Analysis of the Sixth All India Educational Survey (1998) shows vast rural urban inequalities

- At the primary stage, the share of women teachers to total number of teachers ranges from 12.62% in madhya Pradesh to 65.64% in Kerala and it is 92.55% in Chandigarh

- At the upper primary stage, the percentage of women teachers to total varies from 10.81% in Madhya Pradesh, 63% in Kerala and 85% in

The acute shortage of women teachers has been an area of concern and debate for more than hundred years. Recommendation of Education Commission 1882 to financially support rural girls for teacher training through residential programmes is valid even to day but little has been done on this account. The emphasis has been on recruitment of more women teachers or at best quotas in teacher training which was obviously utilized by urban women. The Central Scheme to finance additional women teachers for rural areas in the Sixth Plan was withdrawn in the Seventh Plan. The explanation – urban women get recruited and later manage transfers to their respective urban locations. This is hardly to be faulted considering (a) the Indian male dominated family structure (b) poor availability of basic amenities of health, housing, hygiene and education in rural areas and (c) lack of quotas for rural women in recruitment and teacher training. The problem is more basic. Secondary and higher education of women continues to be an urban elite middle class phenomenon. Rural girls do not get as far as secondary / higher secondary education to become eligible for entry into primary teacher training. It is pertinent to state that the proportion of women teacher is very low in low female literacy belt, each affecting the other. There is a need to increase secondary / higher secondary opportunities for rural girls on a priority basis to end the vicious cycle of rural female illiteracy, low enrolments and lack of women teachers in rural areas (Ibid)

Chapter IV

Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality through Curriculum

Education plays a powerful role in perpetuating gender bias if no planned intervention is made to negate this and turn it into a vehicle of positive reinforcement of equality between sexes. Gender bias is not endemic to education but is systemic. Gender bias operates at different levels in the educational system including curriculum development, textbooks, curriculum transaction and educational programmes. Analysis of curriculum and educational programme shows the continued existence of gender bias and sex stereotyping in the content and process of education. The National Curricular Framework 1998 and 2001 lay particular stress on the core value of equality between sexes which is a constitutional right and has received major attention in the National Policy on Education, 1986 (revised 1992). All major education commissions and committees have advocated implementation of an undifferentiated curricula.

The post independence period began with no visible discrimination or differentiation in the curriculum. Various committees and commissions recommended the same curriculum for both boys and girls e.g., the National Committee on Women's Education 1959 (Durgabai Deshmukh Committee) recommend common curriculum for both boys and girls. The Hansa Mehta Committee (1962-64) also recommended common curricula for boys and girls at elementary stage with home science as a common core subject for both boys. The Education commission 1964-66 (chaired by Dr. D. S. Kothari) recommended a common school system with common curricula for both boys and girls. The National Policy on Education (1968) emphasized equality of educational opportunities and adopted the recommendations made by the Kothari Commission regarding the undifferentiated curriculum. The Committee on Status of Women in India (1974) also recommended a common course of studies for both boys and girls till the end of class X, all courses being open to boys and girls. The National Policy on Education 1986 and its POA also emphasized equal educational opportunities and a common curriculum for all. The policy "Non discrimination will be pursued vigorously to eliminate sex stereotyping in vocational and professional courses and to promote women's participation in non-traditional occupations, as well as existing and emergent technologies."

Despite a policy of undifferentiated curricula, there is visible curriculum differentiation on the basis of gender and the home science syndrome still persists in most states. Very often, the curriculum transaction becomes gender biased. Gender bias has been observed in several +2 level vocational courses as also in courses being offered in the Polytechnics, Technical Training Institutes, Engineering colleges, in Apprenticeship Programme of the D. G. E. T. and even in the specially set up regional Vocational Training Institutes (RVITs) and the National Vocational Training Institute (NVTI) for girls by the D. G. E. T., Ministry of Labour.

Strategies to promote undifferentiated curricula for both sexes

- Orientation of curriculum framers and developers, teacher educators and teachers on gender issues
- Provide guidelines to textbook writers and illustrators to write gender bias free textbooks
- Re-orient teachers at all stages of Education (through pre-service and in-service training) for transacting curriculum in a gender bias free manner
- Open all type of vocational courses for boys and girls
- Sensitize parents and community regarding undifferentiated curriculum for boys and girls so that they can help girls to choose courses according to their abilities. School can take the initiative for such sensitization.

The National Policy of Education 1986 and its Programme of Action reiterated the need to operationalize the Constitutional guarantee of equality between sexes and the protective discrimination clauses therein , by making education an effective instrument of women's equality and empowerment. The Programme of Action laid down the following parameters of women's empowerment

- Enhance self esteem and self confidence of women,
- Building a positive image of women by recognizing their contribution to the society, polity and the economy,
- Developing the ability to think critically,
- Fostering decision making and action through collective processes, enable women to make informed choices in areas like education , employment and health (especially reproductive health),
- Ensuring equal participation in development processes,
- Providing information , knowledge and skills for economic independence , enhancing access to legal literacy and information relating to their rights and entitlements in society with a view to enhancing their participation on an equal footing in all areas

Besides the laudable efforts of the women's movement that spurred state action and mobilized women , India holds the distinction of state sponsored mobilization and organisation of women at the grassroots level.

The women scholars and activists who participated in the formulation of the historic 1986 National Policy on Education and its Programme of Action were backed by experience, research evidence and the special institutional structures and policies of the UN Development Decade 1975-85. The concept of women's empowerment was much debated, challenged and finally became a writ for the nation as not only all educational institutions but also all official agencies and ministries were asked to gear their programmes to achieving women's equality and empowerment. These programmes and schemes range from awareness generation, legal literacy and legal aid, self help credit groups, training for self employment, training in areas of agriculture, horticulture, sericulture, small scale industries,, food preservation, leather technology, handlooms, computers, entrepreneurship , condensed courses of education, vocational and technical training, for participation in local self government, among others

Highlights

- **State Sponsored Fact Finding Mission in the wake of the shocking revelations of the 1971 Census · Setting up of the Committee on the Status of Women which gave its report Towards Equality in 1974 before the start of the UN Development Decade for Women (1975-85)**
- **State Sponsored Mobilisation of Women – WDP project of the Government of Rajasthan which formed the base of the MHRD, Department of Education initiative of Mahila Samakhya, later Integrated Women's Empowerment Project of Haryana , and others.**
- **State schemes for education and survival of the girl child and for adolescent girls**
- **Gender focus in all Education for All and Health for All programmes and gender sensitization of all government personnel**

Some Significant Experiences

The Women's Development Programme (WDP) of the Government of Rajasthan was the first state effort at the mobilisation and organisation of village women. The WDP was the precursor of a major women's empowerment initiative of the Department of Education of the Ministry of Human Resource Development of the Government of India , namely the *Mahila Samakhya*. The project goal is to empower women to take control of their own lives and question and the forms of social organizations that paralyse women and put into limbo their power (*shakti*). The project aims to create a demand for literacy but at a pace determined by the participating women themselves without the pressure for fulfilling quantitative targets. Mahila Samakhya was launched in 1989 in three states, namely, Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka and Gujarat in 10 districts has now expanded to 42 districts in eight states. Mahila Samakhya, a women's development empowerment project is unique that it is state sponsored and is imbued with Indian and Nordic Feminism which "pre-supposes that education can be a decisive intervention in the process towards women's equality." Mahila Samakhya , among others has generated demand for girls' education in its areas of operation and female literacy besides addressing crucial gender issues and development needs of their respective locations.

The Government of Haryana for instance is implementing an Integrated Women's Development Programme with the financial support from the UNFPA and the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare of the Government of India. Organizing and mobilizing women around issues of health, education and legal rights is creating a new perspective among the women of rural areas. Girl's education is a major priority of the project and a stipend is given to the school attending daughters of the women who are regular participants in the project meetings and programmes.

Gender Equality Through Curriculum and Its Transaction

India took an early lead in this area as early as 1976-77 when the women's Education Unit of the NCERT organised a historic workshop attended by leading experts and teachers from the school system as well as from the universities to identify Values Commensurate with the Status of Women. In line with these identified values, handbooks for teachers were prepared by the subject teachers and other experts in the country wide workshops These were

- (1) **Status of Women Through Curriculum : Handbook for Elementary Teachers**
- (2) **Status of Women Through Curriculum for Secondary Teachers**
- (3) **Status of women Through Teaching of Mathematics : A Teachers' Handbook**

This was also a period when the NCERT took a lead to identify and eliminate the element of sex bias in school textbooks Guidelines on Identification and Elimination of Sex Stereotypes from Education Programmes and School textbooks Suggestions for Action in the Asia and Pacific prepared by the NCERT was published by the UNESCO in October , 1985 It was an intense period of work in this area Evaluation tools were developed and analysis of a large number of textbooks was carried out from the point of view of sex bias and work was started on the development of exemplar materials and supplementary readers reflecting the positive contribution of women to society since the immemorial The Women's Education Unit was reconstituted as a full fledged Department of Women's Studies (DWS) soon after The DWS has played a major role in the revision of the NPE 1986 and its Programme of Action (POA) 1992 with respect to Education for Women's Equality and the implementation of the NPE

The National Curricular Framework (1988)

The National Curricular Framework emphasizes the core value of equality between sexes which is a constitutional right and had received major attention in the National Policy on Education, 1986 (revised 1992) The National Curricular Framework also emphasizes ending of social evils and practices derogatory to the dignity of women, environmental protection, small family norm, national integration, democracy and secularism The Programme of Action (revised in 1992) emphasized the need to remove gender bias from text books and school curriculum and underlined the need to gender sensitize all educational personnel so that equality between sexes gets internalized through a gender sensitive and gender inclusive curriculum and its transaction All major education commissions and committees advocate implementation of an undifferentiated curricula

In the wake of NPE 1986, the NCERT has been working consistently for promoting gender equality through the curriculum and its transaction. A number of orientation programmes were organized in states to develop tools for evaluation of textbooks and supplementary readers from the view point of gender bias in state languages. Further in all orientation and training programmes and workshops at national and regional levels the evaluation of textbooks form an integral part of the activities. The findings of evaluation studies were shared with concerned departments and agencies. During 1985-97 over 1000 of text books and supplementary reading material were evaluated. Under the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) – Gender Studies (1993-95) primary textbooks of eight states i.e. Assam, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Kerala and Orissa were also evaluated from gender point of view. Presently, a fresh exercise is on to evaluate present textbooks as to how far they reflect gender equality and women contribution to society.

A number of publications and exemplar resource materials, teachers handbooks were brought out by the NCERT with a view to promoting values commensurate with status of women and gender equality through curriculum after 1986. The more prominent among these include (i) *Image of Women and Curriculum* (1986), (ii) *Annie Besant* (1987), (iii) *Undoing the Damage* (1988), (iv) *Kshati Purti* (Hindi version of *Undoing the Damage*, 1991), (v) *Dahej Dawanal* (1988), (vi) *Begam Hajrat Mahal* (1989), (vii) *Image of Women and Curriculum in Mother Tongue* (1991), (viii) *Portrayal of Women in Tamil Fiction* (1993), (ix) *Pathyakram Ke Madhyam Se Nari Samata Aam Adhikaron Ka Shikshan* (1995), (x) *Nisabi Kitabon Main Jinsi Masawat . A Handbook for Urdu Teachers* (1995), (xi) *Women's Equality and Empowerment through Curriculum . Handbook for Primary Teachers and Head Teachers* (1995), (xii) *From Girl Child to Person . Resource Materials for Primary Teachers and Head Teachers* (1995), (xiii) *Balika Mein Sakaratmak Atman Bodh Vikas . Resource Materials for Teachers and Head Teachers in Hindi* (1997), (xiv) *Legal Literacy for Educational personnel with Focus on Girls and Women : Resource Material* (1997).

Areas of Sex Bias in Textbooks

i. Content

- ♦ Thematic content - content may carry imbalances in themes relating to women in lessons or there can be complete omission
- ♦ Content may be stereotyped - The image of women is often distorted, simplistic, limited or even degrading with clear distinction made between the roles of men and women, both of whom are shown engaged in stereotyped activities

ii Linguistic bias - curricular material often reflects sex bias inherent in the vocabulary, grammar and usage of a language

iii Bias in the presentation of textual material especially in illustrations and visuals

Gender Equality Through Teaching of Subjects

Content Points

Social Sciences - During the transaction of social sciences

- The status and the role of women in the development of society must be highlighted
- Women's Contribution towards the growth of civilization or culture must be highlighted
- History must have women's perspective
- Give knowledge about legal rights of women
- Highlight the role of women in the family alongwith other members of the family
- Involve both boys and girls in co-curricular activities
- Highlight the relationship of geography of a place and the status of women

Science and Mathematics

- Biases regarding the abilities of girls in coping with Science and Mathematics subjects must be eliminated with the help of scientific evidences and reasons
- Correct knowledge of the human physiology must be provided
- In the classroom and laboratories equal opportunities should be given to both boys and girls
- Biographies of women Scientists and Mathematicians must be highlighted.
- Demystify science through positive images and women role models

- Efforts should be made to negate all those values and situations in mathematics and science which depict women as a weaker sex, undervalue their intellectual activity, featuring men doing important work and women in supportive roles
- Provide remedial teaching to girls having low achievement in science/maths

Language

- Avoid use of sexist language
- Textbooks and supplementary readers at the school stage should not contain any references to women which degenerate their status. The existing books should be evaluated and scrutinized from this point of view so as to delete all such references, as long as teachers have to use the existing books they should take care to play down all such references, and endeavour to put things in the correct perspective
- ◆ The contribution of women writers, poets and novelists should be given their due place

Work Experience

- ◆ No gender based discrimination in assigning activities to students

Health and Physical Education

- ◆ Girls should be encouraged to participate in physical activities, games and sports

Inputs Into Teacher Education for Promoting Women's Equality

Teachers are the key actors in the delivery of a curriculum through interaction and personal example. Studies show that teachers' attitudes and acceptance go a long way in raising the self-esteem of pupils. Analysis of curriculum and educational programme shows the existence of gender bias and sex stereotyping to some extent. In order to build teachers' capacities in the area of girls' education and women's empowerment, Teacher Education programme both at pre-service and in-service levels need to be strengthened. National Curriculum of Teacher Education should be made gender inclusive. The component dealing with Women's Studies needs to be mainstreamed and should be integrated with pre-service and in-service training programmes. The Teacher training programmes and orientation workshops/seminars should be made gender sensitive, gender inclusive. Though the Department of Women's Studies conducts at All India level the Six Weeks' training Programme on Methodology, Women's Education and Development annually for the teacher educators and administrators, in the process many persons of various states get trained as the resource persons. lot more has yet to be done. Networking among all resource persons belonging to the same state and to other states should be developed, other government and non-governmental organisations, working in the field of Women's Studies, should also strengthen networking and communicate about the gender training programmes carried out by them. The solidarity among male and female teachers will also be very helpful in promoting gender equality. More and more of female teachers should be employed in rural areas. They should be placed in rural areas and be provided with reasonable facilities and infra-structure.

◆ National Curriculum of Teacher Education

- a. Foundation Courses (Philosophical, Socio-cultural and Psychological foundation of education)
- b. Stage relevant specialisation
- c. Additional specialization
- d. Practical/Field Work

♦ Restructuring Teacher Education Programme with a Gender Focus

- i) Identifying plus point in the existing curriculum of teacher education for incorporation of women's issues
- ii) Re-designing the courses keeping in view the equality between sexes
- iii) Introducing special/elective papers on women's education and to incorporate gender dimension into general topics during curriculum transaction
- iv) Encouraging researches in women's studies or on contemporary women's issues at M Ed , M Phil or Ph D level

♦ Some Suggested themes to be incorporated into Teacher Education Curriculum

Paper Education in the emerging Indian society

- i) Education of women in different periods of history
- ii) Impact of girls education on population growth rate , IMR, Child Health
- iii) Role of women in developing culture, agriculture, economy technology
- iv) Elimination of sex stereotyping from curriculum and educational programmes
- v) Barriers to the development of women and strategies to overcome the same

Paper Psychology

- i) Individual differences verses gender based differences
- ii) Mental hygiene of boys and girls Special problems of boys and girls Behavioural problems of boys and girls
- iii) Development - growth and development of Intelligence and Personality is same for boys and girls under similar conditions

Some Proposed Projects and Topics for Elementary Teacher Training, B Ed , Practical Work and M.Ed Dissertation

- i) To carry out household surveys on school attendance dropout and to motivate parents to educate girls
- ii) Study the relationship between male/ female literacy rates and the pattern of Infant and child mortality and the family size
- iii) To analyse the textbooks for removal of gender bias
- iv) To carry out action research projects on school and classroom practices for promoting gender equality
- v) To engage themselves in the study of problems of educating illiterate women and out of school girls
- vi) To study organization and functioning of agencies working on women's development and empowerment
- vii) To study problems of education of girls in rural areas and urban slums
- viii) To study the problems of education and care of children of women prisoners in jails
- ix) Awareness generation among women and girls on health issues and their legal rights
- x) To study the problems of women teachers in single and two teacher schools
- xi) Depiction of women in media Analysis of the TV programmes, Cinema and Advertisements
- xii) Study of tribal women, rural women
- xiii) Schemes for making women self employed

- xiv) Time budget studies on women's work

School as an Institution for Promoting Gender Equality

Action Points

I Planning and Developing an Institutional Plan

- ♦ Carry out situational analysis of the school to know the reality and to identify the plug points
- ♦ Select issues according to the maturity of children
- ♦ Identify resources (human and other resources) in and outside the school
- ♦ Involve parents community, teachers and senior students in making an institutional plan

II How a school can become an agent of change (Implementation of Institutional Plan)

- ♦ Following participatory approach
- ♦ Redefining values, roles and duties of boys and girls and male and female teachers
- ♦ Organising activities (academic and co-curricular) for children according to their abilities and interests not according to their sex
- ♦ Reviewing existing textbooks and other reading materials with regard to sex bias and stereotyping
- ♦ Reviewing all activities of schools from gender point of view (e.g. application forms annual functions, calling of chief guest staff meetings and activities for children etc.)
- ♦ By role play and reversal
- ♦ By reversal of duties considered as traditionally female or male oriented
- ♦ Organising camps, picnics, visits, project work etc. which offer excellent opportunities for inculcation of attitudes of parity and imparting skills and competencies which equip the girls with positive self concept and confidence
- ♦ Involving girls and boys in preparing charts, models wall magazines catchy slogans

Development of Positive Self Concept in Girls

Content Points

- ♦ Self Concept is how an individual views himself or herself
- ♦ Self Concept can be positive or negative
- ♦ Self Image - refers to the impression we think we make on others

- ♦ **Self esteem** is the dynamic aspect of self concept through which an individual constantly evaluates one's self in relation to society, the amount of values we ascribe to ourselves
- ♦ **Factors affecting development of self concept**
 - Child rearing practices have a marked effect on the development of self concept among children. School, peer group, community, media and other influences in society also contribute towards development of self concept among children
 - It is often observed that girls and women have a low self image and negative self concept
 - Factors for development of low self concept among girls
 - Unwelcomed at birth and uncared for throughout her life leads to the development of low self concept and negative self image of a girl child.
 - Different pattern of socialisation for boys and girls, (special value accorded to male children) emotional rejection and social deprivation of a girl child.
 - Sex stereotyped typed development - sex affects cognitive, social, emotional and physical development of girls. It affects their social interaction, social expectation from them, the opportunities made available to them and their ability to make use of the opportunities if they do exist.
 - Early life experience e.g. differential play materials or equipment for self expression, self development to boys and girls, difference in learning experiences of boys and girls.
 - Effect of sex stereotyped roles played by the parents of the girl child. If the mother or the women in the family are enjoying an inferior status than men, the girl child will develop negative self image.
 - Effect of rituals, festivals and songs all are male centred.
 - School based factors - discriminatory attitude of teachers, dominance of boys in classroom and outside activities, gender bias in text books and curriculum transaction etc.
 - Mass media - depicting men in authoritative and dominant roles and women in passive and domestic roles.
 - Strategies to improve and development positive self image among girls
 - Proper socialisation of girl child, sensitizing parents (especially mother) having healthier relationship with girl child, helping girls to grow and develop normally and they should not be forced into adult patterns from early childhood.
 - See girls as girls and women as persons not just as mothers, potential mothers and wives.
 - Believe in individual differences than in sex differences.
 - Provide a positive and self enhancing learning environment in and outside the classroom.
 - Remove sex bias and stereotypes from curriculum and textbooks.
 - Present women role models in non traditional occupations to girls.

- Give greater freedom of choice and opportunity to girls to express themselves
- Emphasize skill learning among girls
- Give career guidance and counselling to girls

Leadership and Decision Making Qualities Among Girls

Content Points

♦ **Leadership Qualities - Why is it necessary to develop leadership qualities**

- (i) to grow and develop one's capacities and skills
- (ii) to carry out tasks and activities efficiently as they have become complex and group work is becoming more and more necessary
- (iii) for a person to be a leader, his/her qualities must make him/her stand out in a crowd. It is equally important to have those followers who will be able to listen, follow and implement the ideas of their leader

♦ **Other Qualities of a Leader**

- a person with vision
- an individual ready to take risks
- inspiring the followers to do what he/she aims to achieve
- working with rules and regulations
- has good communication skills
- a facilitator in a group
- confident, decisive and goal oriented person
- efficient as well as effective
- well informed on important issues
- Generally girls/women are lagging behind in most of the above mentioned qualities due to several reasons e.g. time constraints, double responsibilities of household and occupational work and attitude of family and society. They do not even read news papers. Most women avoid holding positions of responsibility position of being a leader because they find it difficult to cope with the tasks the position entails.
- To change this situation it is important to see that leadership qualities are developed among girls.
- both schools and home will have to play an equally important role in a change of parents and teachers attitude towards girls children.
- positive qualities to be inculcated among girls. In school through role play, games and assignment of duties and responsibilities to be developed among girls.

Decision making

- ♦ Every moment of our lives we are faced with situations where decisions have to be taken there and now
- ♦ Decisions

Saksham A Gender Sensitive Life Skills Approach to Curriculum Transaction at the Elementary Stage: A proposed Framework

(Saksham, the name given to the approach stands for a gender sensitive life skills approach to curriculum transaction. This is not to be an add-on programme but an approach. This concept of life skills goes much beyond economic skills, visualized under Work Experience or SUPW. It includes all the skills necessary for day to day functioning and covers many areas such as the Family Life Education/ Population education, Legal literacy and Life saving skills which are strategic and are struggling to get into the formal curriculum. Besides, this approach is a bid to alter the unequal gender relations and would empower both boys and girls for a shared future by breaking down gender stereotyping and gender barriers in skill development. A major hall mark of the approach is that it is not seen as a work of specialists but is to be implemented by the teachers and the students with the support of the parents and the community, and that too keeping in view the field realities of multi grade schools with inadequate infrastructure and poor communities, especially in the rural areas)

At the start of a new millennium in human history, maybe we adults need to ask ourselves if we have done our best to ensure that from toddlers to teenagers, our young, are well equipped to handle life as it exists today and also allow them space for forging a desired future

- *Philosophy of education has lost the race to Economics of education. We have veered away from the holistic education of our children as envisioned by our own philosophers- education predicated on the finer aspects of our tradition and moving cautiously towards a modern industrial society without losing our moorings. The head, heart and hands that created tools and technologies are no more masters but mere servants to an increasingly consumerist, highly competitive, unequal social order- international and intra-national. Humans are judged in terms of the units of production they account for in terms of domestic product, as a resource as means largely- the larger concerns of human development and humane development as an end take the back stage. We won political freedom but lost our souls, lost our world view that was getting shaped by the Indian Renaissance movement, by a galaxy of men and women of substance who lived simply, and for others.*
- *In the last fifty years in education as in all walks of life, we have moved from cooperation to competition as a model for living. Despite several attempts at humanizing education, schooling is preparing children for surviving in a culture of ruthless competition through means fair or foul through cramming or cheating, through private tuitions through influence. Social Darwinism is operating at its worst. Violence and hostility are the hallmarks of day today living. Women and children are the most abused groups. Peace, harmony, contentment and sharing are little used words or values. Dignity of labour, hard work, punctuality and honesty are casualties.*
- *Testing and measurement at the moment only test only scholastic areas. This results in a fragmented curriculum and acquisition of isolated knowledge by the students and non scholastic areas get a shrift. This leaves the students as partial human beings who develop some retention skills but little else. Presently anything which is not evaluated formally is not considered worth doing.*
- *For an appreciable length of time we shall not have complete elementary stage educational facilities especially for our rural girls despite our constitutional commitment to Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE). As against every 100 primary schools in the country, there are only 30 middle schools, 13 high schools and only 5 higher secondary schools in the country. Rural girls simply lack access to post primary schooling. For every 100 girls in Class I, there are only 3 who make it to Class XII in rural areas compared to 23 in urban areas. Rural girls have very slender chances of completing ten to twelve years of schooling which would entitle them to enter vocational, technical and higher professional and general education.*
- *While, the children of the top 2% move into the tertiary age, children of 50% bottom half of the population, have poor access to education, both quantitatively and qualitatively, among these girls and women belonging to rural and urban poor are the main sufferers as they are forced to support their families.*

(as invisible labour) and the education of the male children, at times. Curiously, the metropolitan cities of Delhi, Calcutta and Bombay show a counter trend in that boys form majority of the out of school populations, perhaps on account of greater availability of sundry work opportunities and lesser familial control resulting in vagrancy, abuse and delinquency at times. Urban, elitist, middle class dominance is evident.

- Education is unrelated to life. Every lower stage is a preparation for the next higher stage of education, the academic syllabus of the next higher stage determines every thing- teaching, learning, evaluation- giving short shrift to activities such as cultural, physical education, sports, art, craft and above all work experience. And these are all non examination areas.
- We have an excellent national curriculum framework which gives broad guidelines with enough room for local adaptation. However, curriculum transaction is incomplete, fragmented, truncated. Education is performing only social selection/ allocation function for employment, under employment and unemployment and is churning out human beings who are robots to consumerism oriented industrialization and marketing and lack the breadth and depth of human feelings and skills necessary for day today living.
- **Moving from Women's Equality to the Gender Question.** Equality between sexes is a fundamental right under the Constitution of India. The State also has the right to practice protective discrimination in favour of disadvantaged population groups including women. In education we have moved from Equality of Educational Opportunity (1968 National Policy of Education) to Education for Women's Equality and Empowerment in 1986, National policy of Education and its Programme of Action (revised in 1992). Since then exclusive emphasis has been on advocacy, curricular and training strategies in this direction and education of the girl child has emerged as a strong contender for attention. This has somewhat led to alienation of the boys and adult male backlash. This brings us to a point where rethinking of our strategies becomes necessary indicating the need to think in terms of gender equality and empowerment of all in place of women's equality and women's empowerment. We must carry our boys and men along.

It is important to increase access of girls to education, especially rural girls by providing complete elementary stage facilities, formal and non formal within the village, day schools and hostels for secondary education for them at the block level, employing more women teachers at all levels, among other measures. Our perception is that it is as vital or perhaps more crucial that gender discrimination and gender bias in school programmes and curriculum transaction are eliminated. There is need to develop and implement gender inclusive, gender sensitive curricular strategies to bring up a generation of girls and boys who are equally competent and are sensitive to one another, sensitive to all around them, and grow up in a caring and sharing mode as equals, and not as adversaries.

- **Need for Life Skills.** Based upon earlier field experiences it is identified that the work experience programme is done very perfunctorily and very poor understanding of the total concept exist among the teachers. Further it continues to be gender stereotyped. Interaction with close to three hundred primary teachers and head teachers in a school based programme for promotion of primary education among girls and disadvantaged groups in rural communities revealed total lack of interest and even ignorance about the fact that 35% of the school time is to be devoted to areas other than language, mathematics and environmental studies, namely, work experience, physical education, art education, music and socially useful productive work. Even majority of fee levying private schools do mostly cramming exercise and some co curricular activities. Work experience and SUPW gets perfunctorily done, if at all. It is time we think of linking the school curriculum with skills required for leading a full life in a society predicated on the values of democracy, secularism and scientific humanism. There is need to explore the possibility of converting the curricular content into meaningful activities that would result in development of critical life skills in our children as we move into the 21st century.
- **Why elementary stage.** Basic education is a basic human right. In India, it is a constitutional obligation (Article 45) and a thrust area of National Policy of Education 1986 and its POA (revised in 1992). Analysis of the present situation indicates that in foreseeable future, elementary education is the maximum to which most of the population, especially rural girls would have access to. This implies that for majority of our children and adolescents, primary/upper primary education will be the terminal stage. And,

they will enter life as citizens as parents, as workers, and responsible members of the community. Presently, all vocational and even pre vocational skills inculcation is concentrated in post elementary stages. Even there, the major emphasis is on economic skills. If elementary education is to be the maximum for majority of children, then can we leave them without competencies and skills needed to lead a full life. Today, even if a child is able to complete ten years of schooling, all that s/he has learnt is some abstract knowledge, unrelated facts, unprocessed information with no practical skills to negotiate with the outside world.

SAKSHAM The Concept of Life Skills

What are life skills?

- Life Skills are abilities and capabilities that enable us to deal effectively with different life situations and challenges. We need innumerable skills to function as individuals and as members of social groups, premier areas being family/household, neighbourhood, community, economy/work place/market, and other social and political institutions.
- Life skills required will be determined by the temporal and the spatial considerations. What may be relevant at one period of time may not be useful for all times. The same will apply to spatial dimensions which would vary across cultures and regions.
- Life skills programme would enable us to translate knowledge, attitudes and values into actual abilities- to know what to do, when to do, how to do when faced with real life situations. Life skills are abilities that enable us to behave in healthy ways and think and act out with logic and sensitivity.
- Effective acquisition and application of life skills can influence the way we feel about ourselves and others, and will in equal measure influence the way others perceive us. These skills can enhance our productivity, our self efficacy, self esteem and self confidence. Life skills can give us the tools and techniques to improve interpersonal relations and solve and help solve minor and major problems and face challenges and unforeseen contingencies with equanimity and presence of mind.
- Besides preparing us for the world of work, participation in social cultural and political processes and institutions, life skills need to be acquired to maintain good mental and physical health and a capacity for joyous and happy living and putting to good use our leisure time.
- Life skills are needed to identify life nurturing, life saving as well as life threatening and life destroying articles and processes. Life skills are necessarily skills that sustain life and meaningful existence and are hence benign.
- All activities in schools and classrooms should be oriented to formation of life skills conducive to and sensitive to all life forms, humans, plants, animals, nature on the planet earth.

• **Present Situation of Life Skills in Schools**

Theoretically, a large number of skill components are included in the work experience programme which received renewed emphasis in NPE 1986 and became an integral part of the National Curriculum Framework (1988). Besides there is the unstated assumption that transaction of other curricular areas would equip the young children with skills necessary for day to day functioning. However, the field realities are very different. Only language, mathematics and EVS are taught in most of the schools. Work experience, Health & Physical, and Arts are completely neglected although 40 % of the time is to be devoted to these areas at the primary level and 32% at the upper primary level. A recent School Based Programme on Mass Mobilisation for Quality and Equality, showed that all 300 primary teachers of a block were totally unaware of the fact that academic subjects are only to receive 60% time and that work experience, health and physical education, art education (visual and performing arts) even though they are non examination subjects are legitimate curricular areas and

be given 40% of the school time. For them curriculum meant, only, language, mathematics and EVS, "the rest were all extra and a waste of time for these interfered with their completing the syllabus".

- **Life skills programmes for out of school children and adolescents**

There are a large number of initiatives in the field where mainly the NGO sector is making persistent efforts to reach the vast sea of out of school adolescents, both girls and boys. In these programmes, major emphasis is placed on skills for self reliance and for enhancing self esteem and confidence. In these programmes literacy and numeracy are given in the functional mode, as skills to be used by these young for negotiating with their immediate environment and for acquiring necessary life skills in the area of health, nutrition, income generation, micro enterprise management, modern technology and even for participating in the political institutions. There is a lot to learn from these small experiments that are educating the young for coping with and overcoming problems, from personal to social. Small in scale and well funded, these programmes are backed by a sense of commitment and professionalism among their leaders and workers.

Proposed Gender inclusive and Socially Strategic Life Skills

- Household related (cooking, stitching, kitchen gardening, nutrition, food processing, washing, cleaning, mending, personal health and hygiene etc)
- Domestic maintenance (minor electrical repairs, plumbing, bicycle maintenance, repairing a puncture, white washing, painting, gardening, maintenance and repair of agricultural implements etc)
- Accessing Public Services(post and telegraph services, rail and bus services ,banking health and sanitation among others)
- Family life skills (reproductive health, sex education, planned parenthood, responsible parenthood, AIDS education, drug abuse, menstrual management etc)
- Life saving skills(road safety, fire fighting, first aid, home nursing etc)
- Legal literacy(Constitutional rights and duties, Rights of the Child, Rights of women, Human rights, Consumer rights, personal and social laws etc.)
- Personal & Social competencies (health , physical fitness, effective communication, problem solving, decision making, critical thinking, , Inter personal skills, positive self concept, creative self expression etc)
- Social sensitivity(care of poor, sick, aged disabled, fighting social evils, valuing women's work and contribution, dignity of the individual etc)
- Environmental sensitivity (protection conservation and improvement of environment, identification and fighting pollution hazards, love and care of plant and animal life etc)
- Skills for Democracy (making classroom and schools function as democratic institutions, skills for voting, elections, debate & consensus building, constitutional rights and duties, understanding functioning of local self government, state and national legislatures)
- Occupational skills (Valuing women's work and skills, dignity of labour, work ethics- punctuality, hard work, honesty, time and space management, resource management, entrepreneurship, small business etc.)
- Skills for use of leisure time

Plug Points

- Transaction of academic subjects-exercises
- Text books and children's literature
- Teacher education
- Work experience
- Health and Physical education
- Art, music, dance, drama, debate, elocution
- Field visits

Planning and Management of Life Skills development

- It has to be within the existing policy framework and the scheme of studies, to be utilizing fully the entire school day/ instructional time and even holidays at times and to be integrated in the scholastic and non scholastic areas of the curriculum
- It is not visualised as a stand alone programme but as an approach to curriculum transaction in which all knowledge should lead to acquisition of useful life skills and healthy attitudes
- It is not to be seen as an economic skills development programme at the elementary stage, but certainly must prepare children for day to day work related and other personal and social skills, competencies and attitudes
- Activities to be selected for inculcation of desired skills will take into account both, the larger educational goals and the cultural contexts and specificities, including the local ecology and social systems
- The programme has to be community based, community owned, and community supported.
- Looking at the large number of children belonging to poverty households who are not able to afford even the minimum of text books and stationery, it is necessary that the programme is low cost, no cost and relies on indigenous materials and initiatives.
- The limitations of existing physical infrastructure and multigrade teaching, have to be kept in mind while planning various activities
- Lateral / horizontal mode Within the schools, the activities can be organised both in age- grade specific groups and across the grades in multiple age groups using house system and morning assembly to accomplish the same
- Internal self evaluation by the institutions to be accompanied by external monitoring and technical support
- An attempt should be made to develop these generic skills in all children and it is the institution that needs to be evaluated in relation to mass acquisition of these skills at an acceptable level Individual competition be avoided and groups modes encouraged Instead of ranking , all institutions may be encouraged to achieve the qualifying standards
- At the present stage we could first attempt this approach in the formal system and then plan separately for the NFE / Alternative school keeping in view the problem of logistics, time, space, under paid , under qualified NFE instructors and poorest of the poor children who are all likely workers, paid or unpaid.
- Bilateral cooperation between the NGOs and the educational system would be to the advantage of both
- Convergence of inputs from sister departments and agencies would help in conducting and supporting many activities

Suggested areas for generic life skills formation

A .Personal and Social Skills

Sound health and physical fitness

- Personal hygiene, fitness, sports, games, exercise, yoga, meditation etc

Leisure time use

- Aesthetics, reading, listening to music, hobbies, excursions, nature walks, planning holidays

Effective communication

- Oral and written skills e.g. recitation, debate, elocution, well formed handwriting, composition, school magazine, reading habits

Problem solving

- Collect relevant facts and analyse the same for finding alternative solutions to day to day problems

Decision making

- Weighing alternatives, taking timely decisions

Critical thinking

- ability to analyse and evaluate objectively and dispassionately

Inter personal relationships

- relating pleasantly to friends, family, visitors, guests, public functionaries and community at large
- working and playing in groups
- Ability to identify one's own

Positive self concept

- strengths and weaknesses,
- capitalizing on one's strength and overcoming weaknesses

Creative self expression

- Writing, music, dance, art, craft especially through folk medium

B. Household Related skills

Household tasks

- Cooking
- Nutrition(balanced diet, natural foods, properties of vegetables and herbs)
- Washing clothes
- Sweeping and cleaning
- Kitchen gardening
- Health and hygiene
- Mending
- Stitching
- Thrift
- Household remedies

Domestic maintenance/technology orientation

- Minor electrical repairs(putting a fuse etc)
- Repair of water taps/hand pump
- Bicycle maintenance, greasing, putting a puncture etc
- Whitewashing, painting

- Maintenance of domestic appliances- stoves, cookers
- Agricultural implements/processes
- Industrial implements/processes

C. Family life skills

- Sex education, Planned parenthood
- Responsible parenthood
- AIDS/HIV/STD awareness
- Drug abuse dangers
- Menstrual management (for girls)
- Handling / stopping family violence -verbal, physical
- Awareness about child abuse, sexual harassment
- Family as a living democracy; consciousness of rights and duties of all, just division of labour and resources, respecting the dignity of all, women, men and children alike

D. Life Saving skills

- Road Safety
- Fire fighting
- First aid(burns, injuries, snake bite, drowning, poisoning etc)
- Home nursing
- Fighting natural hazards/calamities
- Averting hazards of pesticides
- Refuse management/ disposal

E. Accessing Public services

Post and telegraph operations

- money order, registered mail, parcel, telegram, savings etc

Rail/Bus Services

- Bookings , reading a railway time table, fares etc

Banking operations

- Opening & operating an account, bank draft, drawing a loan, savings and investments etc

Health and sanitation service

- Advocacy for immunization
- Preventing disease and epidemics
- Preventing contamination of water sources
- Purifying water
- Proper sanitation, drainage
- Refuse management etc

F. Social Sensitivity

- Empathy and care of poor, sick, aged, disadvantaged, and handicapped
- Fighting social evils like untouchability, dowry, early marriage, corruption etc
- Valuing women's work and contribution
- Respecting the dignity of all women, men and children

G Environmental Sensitivity

- Protection of environment- all species
- Identification of pollution hazards/ agents
- Conservation of resources
- Promoting eco friendly and bio degradable materials for daily use
- Love and care of plants and animals

- Averting hazards of pesticides, plastics, industrial effluents, poisonous emissions
- Fighting contamination of water sources- procuring clean drinking water
- Prevention of disease, infections, epidemics

H. Skills for Democracy

Classroom and School

- Skills for classroom as a democracy
- Skills to make school as a functioning democracy
- Mock parliament, voting , elections
- Participation, leadership, group cohesion, ability to appreciate other people's point of view, respecting and accommodating diversities , valuing freedom of expression , valuing other cultures and religions

- Valuing all work , especially the work and contribution of women
- Valuing all skills, especially women's skills that are life nurturing and life sustaining
- Dignity of labour
- Work ethics- punctuality, honesty, hard work, diligence, time and space management, working in groups, institutional loyalty etc
- Pre vocational skills
- Entrepreneurship
- Small business management

Legal literacy

- Knowing constitutional rights and duties
- Understanding functions of local self government, municipalities, legislatures and parliament
- Human Rights, Rights of Child, Rights of Women(CEDAW)
- Consumer education
- Personal and social laws,
- Labour laws,
- Laws related to crimes against women
- Public interest litigation

I Work/Occupational related skills

Chapter V

Research, Action and Reflection

From philosophical analysis to empirical social sciences and finally to women's studies and gender issues, the study of women's education and the women's question offers a fascinating experience. The pre independence period beginning early nineteenth century, coterminous with the social reform movement and the nationalist struggle, can be seen as the phase of the application of the caveats of "philosophical analysis" as seen in the writings and commentaries of social and political activists who were openly committed to promoting women's education and the women's cause. Additionally, scores of official reports, charters and dispatches, not to forget the memoranda given to the British rulers by the Indian men and women, give an insight into the status of women's education in that period. The post independence period saw the birth of formal educational and social research initially dominated by the "value free" empirical social sciences (influenced by the methods of the natural sciences and later becoming "value explicit" scientific enquiries, and, finally, the participatory exercises in the discovery of knowledge and its application to the melioration of human conditions. For good reasons, women's studies and later gender studies, arrived as a part of the social sciences scene for the study of the women's question and to which women's education is central. Expectedly women's studies are increasingly influencing both the meta knowledge (concepts, theoretical positions, approaches and methodology) and the substantive knowledge produced on women, their condition, their aspirations, their struggles. Women's studies now concentrate on analysing not only the objective conditions of gender disparities and gender inequalities but focus on redefinition and restructuring of the social (gender) roles of men and women in the framework of equality. Also, women's studies are offering an alternative world view which is inclusive of women's knowledge and perspectives, and, redefines human interactions and human nature interaction to give development a human face and sustainability.

Pre Independence Period

The concern for the education of women and girls has dominated the Indian thinking since early nineteenth century when modern (western) system of education was founded under the East India Company Charter of 1813 and in this scheme for educating Indians, women's education found no place. Education of women developed throughout the nineteenth century till independence of India largely through private initiative and the pioneering efforts of Christian missionaries and liberal Englishmen and later by the leaders of the Indian social reform movement and the nationalist struggle. The first State response came in 1854 (Wood's Despatch) when education of girls was owned up as a State responsibility. Up to 1882 (Hunter's Commission), only primary education of girls received state support after which came the concern for secondary and higher education of girls and the preparation of women teachers (Nayar, 1988). The introduction of Dyarchy (1921), Provincial Autonomy (1937) and mass mobilisation for the freedom struggle not only inducted women into the political processes but made them come into their own as a constituency with the birth of All India Women's Conference in 1924. Women in British India attained the right to vote along with men much ahead of several of their western counterparts. Mass education was seen as the drive arm of the mass based freedom struggle. The early demand by the Indian leaders for compulsory universal primary education was shot down in 1911 but reappeared more strongly in the Nai Talim (Basic Education) of Gandhi. To that extent the Post-War Educational Development Plan (1944) stated that all education which was good enough for boys would be equally beneficial to girls (Ibid.). In less than a century, education of women had gained legitimacy and public support in addition to State support.

The social reformers saw education of women as a means of deliverance of women from centuries of obscurantist traditions, like *Sati*, enforced widowhood, female infanticide, child marriage, denial of the right to property among others. A primarily male led movement of social reform, saw education of women's as strengthening the institution of the Indian family and raising the quality of family life but no public roles were envisaged for women. The contribution of the large band of some extraordinary men, philosophers, educators, leaders of reformed Hindu Church (the Arya Samaj, the Brahmo Samaj, the Rama Krishna Mission, the Khalsa Diwan, the Dev Samaj, the Prarthna Samaj and several others) is immense as it lifted the women from the sub-stratum of society, from sub-human existence to a level of relatively greater human dignity. Thus humanism of the social reformers, several among whom also spearheaded 'cultural revivalism' by harking back to the golden period of women's education and status

in the Vedic era, dominated the nineteenth century. These reformers felt that women if educated, could lead the decadent Indian feudal society from its morass of immorality by acting as custodians of the finer aspects of the Indian tradition.

Tradition was differently employed and interpreted by the social reformers. The progressive and the revivalists, among them, Ram Mohan Roy, Ranade, Dayanand Saraswati and their followers marked back to the high social and educational status of women in ancient time. Vidya Sagar, Phuley, and Lokhitwadi Deshmukh made a frontal attack on the Hindu social structure and saw caste as major enemy of the position of women and questioned some of the fundamental values of the Hindu society which Ranade and other wanted to purify and preserve (Mazumdar, 1976, pp 46-48). The interest in the question of the position of women and reinterpretation of tradition sprang from the need to counteract the degradation of Indian womanhood as painted by the Victorian English authors and travellers. The revivalistic interpretation of the old literary sources had the important function of supporting the social reforms and laws on women against the criticism of Hindu orthodoxy and helped in legitimizing the same by drawing on tradition (Singh 1985: 46, Mies 1980). The social reform movement besides waging a war against social evils like Sati, child marriage, ban on widow re-marriage, dowry and the like gave an impetus to like Sati, child marriage, ban on widow re-marriage, dowry and the like gave an impetus to women's education. A large number of secular and non-Christian Denominational institutions for girls came up due to individual and group effort.

However, the leadership of the nationalist movement offered women a limited participation to begin with even though an extraordinary woman, Lakshmi Bai of Jhansi had helped light the torch of freedom as early as 1857. In late nineteenth century a handful of women got involved in revolutionary activities and challenged their leaders' refusal to allow them to participate fully in the freedom movement. As the freedom movement became mass based, women's participation in increasing numbers became visible and they began raising some basic questions about their rights. Thus phenomenal awakening of the Indian womanhood found its most striking and significant expression in the various representative organisations that rapidly sprang up all over the country and in the establishment of a number of pioneering institutions founded by prominent women for the advancement of women in educational and other fields. This then was the historical process which earned women not only equality in the Constitution of India but even protective discrimination from the State for neutralizing the cumulative disadvantage of several millennia. Among the large number of the framers of the Constitution along with sensitive enlightened men, were women who wrote the charter for an Indian society based on justice, equality, liberty and dignity of the individual.

In sum, this period was marked by social and political activism and is notable for substantial progress of women's education and status. As regards the study of women's education and women's issues is concerned this period can perhaps be seen as one of philosophical analysis when a spate of writings, commentaries, official reports, memoranda, news paper reports provide us with accounts of the prevalent theories, concepts and practices of female education.

Post Independence

Women's education has been an area of major policy concern since independence and is seen as central to the social, political and economic development of the nation and of women themselves. Three significant but different strands of the morphology of the study of women's education need to be analysed and understood: (i) university research in the area; (ii) the contribution of policy making, expert groups, commissions and committees; and (iii) growth of policy research with perspectives from feminism and women's studies.

University researches on women's education have largely been carried out in the Departments of Education leading to the degrees of Masters in Education (M.Ed.) and Ph.D. in Education, occasionally in Departments of Psychology, Sociology, History and most recently in Economics and Political Science. As for all educational research, so for women's education, the influence of psychology, primarily psychometry is evident in the studies reported in the early phases. Whereas all other social sciences graduated from their totally western orientations to more field based work, thus, growing a body of knowledge about grass root Indian reality, education continued to be insulated from methodological and conceptual advances of the self-critical social sciences that were making a bid to give knowledge a status of an active agent of social analysis and social action. Although there has been considerable amount of research on women's education in the university system, large parts of the

works have remained confined to library shelves. The impact of these researches on policy formulation and action in the area of women's education and development has been negligible.

As in the pre independence period, the conceptual frameworks and concerns about women's education have emerged from other sources. The work of the committees and commissions headed by eminent men and women have guided action and given a thrust to education as part of planned socio economic development. Basic issues of access, management, and content have been settled through debates emanating from these attitude groups till finally the first National Policy of Education 1968 was adopted, settling questions like co-education and undifferentiated curricula in the framework of 'equal opportunity'. For instance, the debate about separate curriculum for boys and girls was put to an end by the Committee on Differentiation of Curricula headed by Hansa Mehta in 1964. The position alternated from separate (Radha Krishnan University Education Commission 1949) to the same curricula as recommended by Mudaliar Secondary Education Commission (1953). Durgabai Deshmukh Committee on Education of Women (1959) which formed the main sheet anchor for the development of the programmes of women's education took a very forward looking stance by suggesting among others, home science as a compulsory subject for both boys and girls for classes VI, VII and VIII. The Education Commission 1964-66 headed by D S Kothari also supported equal educational opportunities and in all fields of education for both girls and boys(7). Recommendations of this Commission formed the basis for the First National Policy on Education, 1968.

The shocking revelations of the Census of India, 1971 such as, constantly declining sex ratio and work participation rates of women, higher unemployment, higher morbidity and mortality lower literacy and educational participation among women. Vast differences in the status of women across groups, classes and regions, were noted and explicated by the Committee on the Status of Women in India (CSWI) which submitted its report 'Towards Equality' in the year 1974, ahead of the International Year for Women (1975). Thus CSWI report not only became the basis for the setting up of institutional structures with focus on the development of women and children, but also led to the rejuvenation of the women's movement spearheaded by the feminist scholars and activists. These events were coterminous with the developments on the international scene during the UN Development Decade (1975-1985) and the three world conference on women in Mexico, Copenhagen and Nairobi. All national and international networks of women activists and scholars, the national government and the international organisations began seeing women's education and development as integral to human growth and development. The Sixth, Seventh and the Eighth Five Year Development Plans show the shift from the earlier perception of women as recipients of welfare to their becoming active agents of development(8).

The National Policy of Education (NPE) 1986 is a landmark in the evolution of status of women in India in that education has been given the mandate of bringing about women's equality and empowerment through revised curricula, reorientation of educational personnel and making women's studies the drive arm for generating, studying and supporting action. It is important to note that researches generated by the pioneering women's research centres such as the Research Centre for Women's Studies, SNDT University, the Centre for Women's Development Studies (CWDS), Delhi, the Institute of Social Studies Trust (ISST), Centre for Women's Studies, Tiruvndrum and the other two Women's Universities, Mother Teresa, (Tamil Nadu) and Padmavati (Andhra Pradesh), Indian Institute of Education, Pune, and the Department of Women's Studies NCERT are noteworthy. The NCERT took the initiative to set up the first chair in Women's Studies in the country in 1988. The researches that have emerged from these centres have had a definite influence in shaping not only educational policies, plans and programmes but giving a direction to the national effort in the area of women's development as equal partners in a secular democracy, also, bringing home the centrality of women's education to women's empowerment as a non negotiable area of societal progress and enhancement of women's status. After 1986, the researches have not only emerged from women's studies centres on their own but a lot of policy researches have been commissioned by the national government and the UN system, UNESCO, UNICEF, ILO, WHO and other international agencies like the Commonwealth Secretariat. Researches reported in the Fifth Survey of Educational Research (are not exhaustive, only illustrative) indicate that while the universities appear to be getting somewhat more sensitive to problems of women and girls from different groups of population especially the disadvantaged sections, these are not influenced by feminist perspectives of women's studies except in the three women's universities and the women's studies centres in the country.

In an extensive bibliography on women's education up to 1965, a total of 976 entries comprising books, articles, government reports, M Ed. and Ph D dissertations are listed. This is a pioneering effort on the study of women's education. The bibliography reports 147 M Ed. and 4 doctoral dissertations. Chitra Nair's (1949) doctoral work on Education of Women in Bombay Province 1818-1947 is a comprehensive analysis of education of women in Bombay Province till independence. Other doctoral projects reports are of Padma Kirtikar (1952) on Education of Women in India during the British Period 1800-1917, K. Jain (1954) on Personality Studies of Adolescent Girls - all three from the Bombay University. The doctoral work of D. J. Visvasam (1963) on Programme of Physical Education in India from Madras University needs to be noted for the very fact that this area has been in limbo ever since and needs attention. Of these 157 educational research studies, 51 (33%) are focused on the development of female education in India, its progress and problems for the period 1800 to 1960, one study going as far back as 1700 AD tracing the development of women's education in the Madras Presidency. These studies are primarily descriptive, not very analytical accounts of the evolution of women's education during the British period and in independent India. Sixteen of these studies focus on the academic areas of achievement, educational backwardness, ability, attitude, interest in subjects, aspiration and motivation; eleven are on physical education, sports, music, art, girl guiding and other co-curricular activities. Other major areas covered are education and society and social change, impact of socio-economic background on students and teachers (eleven), vocational and technical education, career guidance (ten), problems and attitudes of women teachers (thirteen), primary education (ten), wastage in education (four) and women and employment (four). Eighty of these studies had school girls and fourteen college girls as subjects of study. There were five studies on the problems of adolescent girls, two on the status of women as reflected in literature and one each on women's organisations and educational administration.

The first systematic effort at documenting educational research was made by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) when it published the titles of M Ed. and Ph D theses in education completed during 1939-1961 with a supplementary updated publication in 1966. M. S. University of Baroda brought out the First Survey of Research in Education (1974) covering researches completed up to 1972(11). The Second Survey of Research in Education covering the period 1972-78 was brought out by a few motivated researchers of an NGO in Baroda(12). At that juncture NCERT took the historical decision to institutionalise this project and since then has brought out the Third, Fourth and the Fifth Survey of Research in Education (1997)(13). An analysis of the first four surveys brings out the fact that women's education which concerns half of our population has not been given adequate attention. In the First Survey only 22 studies accounting for 3.00 percentage of the total number of 731 studies, were devoted to women's education, in the Second Survey 5.60 percent of 839 reported studies and in the Fourth Survey 0.91 percent of 1652 studies reported. It may be pertinent to point out that in the first three surveys there was no separate section on the research on women's education. In the Fourth Survey and separate sections on women's education were included. However, it is important to state that the ninety odd studies reported in the Fifth Survey are not the universe, at best these can be said to indicate the general tone and trend in this area. Further due to procedural constraints, there would be several studies with sex/gender as a variable in different sections of the Fifth Survey. Therefore this trend report on education of women would have to be read in conjunction with other sectors to get a more accurate picture. A birds eye view of the five surveys follows.

The First Survey of Educational research (1974)

The First Survey has included 22 research studies on women's education of which 21 are doctoral dissertations (13 in Education, 1 in History, 4, in Sociology and 2 in Psychology) and 1 district study by the Government of India. Topics covered include development of women's education (8), attitude of university girls towards military training (1), education society linkages (4), and at least seven studies on personality and personality disorders of adolescent girls. Of these 22 studies, 14 are on college and school girls in urban areas, 6 studies used secondary data only, all others were empirical and primarily concerned with female students. Only one study attempts to interview parents to elicit their views and attitudes about girls education and the problem of enrolment and retention (Mehsana Study, Government of India). There is one study on the development of leadership in adolescent girls, the rest highlight only the problems of adjustment and other personality related questions regarding adolescence.

The Second Educational Research Survey (1972-78)

In this survey 47 researches on women's education have been identified, of which 28 are doctoral dissertations and the rest are independent researches. This is a marked shift from the First Survey. Among these doctoral researches, 20 are in Education, 3 in Sociology, 3 in Psychology and one in Home Science. There are only three dissertations devoted to women's education and development and only one study deals with the primary education of rural girls.

The Third Educational Research Survey (1978-83)

Forty six studies on women's education and related issues are noticed in the Third Survey. Of these 32 are doctoral dissertations, 17 in Education, 6 each in Psychology and Sociology, and one each in Economics, Political Science and Home Science besides 14 independent researches compared to earlier periods, the interest in development of female education per se is limited to only one dissertation, only two studies deal with academic achievement and intelligence, two with self concept, one with truancy and six with behavioural problems of adolescents. At least eight studies are concerned with impact of education on the status and achievement of women. In all nine studies are noticed on women and work of which six are about women teachers. Only one study is focussed on rural women, one on scheduled caste and four on Muslim women. One study is devoted to early childhood education. Likewise one study each is noticed in the areas of vocational training needs, statistics on women's education and political socialisation. Only two studies each are devoted to the rather important areas of financing of education, non formal education and primary education, and one in adult education.

The Fourth Educational Research Survey (1983-1988)

In the Fourth Survey in all 68 research studies on women's education and development are noticed. Of these, 47 are Ph.D. works and 21 are distributed over Education (11), Psychology (11), Sociology (3), English and Social Work, one each. Three researches are devoted to development of women's education and another three to achievement and one each is on physical education, sports and music. There are five studies on social change amongst women, two related to vocational education and occupational preferences and six on women teachers. As in previous surveys, problems of adolescent girls are the focus of eight studies. Again there are at least eight studies on women and work noticed of which four are concerned with working mothers. There are as many as seven studies on personality and psychological and behavioural problems of girls. There are four studies concerned with female adult education and two in the area of non formal education, three deal with the problems of wastage and educational backwardness. During this period, the problems of rural girls/women (3) ST girls, women (5) SC girls/women (4) have received attention. An interesting investigation is the gleanings of women's education, its forms, methods and effects as reflected in the works of major women novelists of the 19th century.

The Fifth Educational Research Survey (1988-1992)

In the Fifth Survey, the 95 studies on women's education and development are largely in Education (fifty six) for the award of the Ph.D. degree and 12 in M.Phil. in Education. There are seven studies in Psychology, three in Sociology, besides 16 independent projects and 8 published articles/books. There are at least 20 studies which have been done with a perspective from women's studies. This is a major departure from the previous surveys. It may be important to point out that women's studies were formally introduced in the Indian Universities in 1984 and the NCERT created its Department of Women's Studies in 1987 (earlier the Women's Education Unit).

In the Fifth Survey only five studies are devoted to the general theme of women's education and only two studies are noted in the area of achievement, seven in education-society interface. There are five studies on vocational education/career choices/guidance. There are at least 19 studies in the area of women and employment (economy) but only one in the area of women and the polity. Three studies are devoted to primary education, five on wastage/educational backwardness. Only three studies are devoted to adolescent girls, but at least five studies are devoted to rural girls and women, two on population education, three on gender bias in textbooks and, three on adult education of girls in the age group 6-14 years. There is only one study on women and media and two on self concept and another two on personality.

A Summative Analysis of the Fifth Survey (1988-92)

Analysis of the researches on education of women reported in the Fifth Survey (1988-92) shows some discernible shifts from the earlier surveys both in the area of the 'meta knowledge', the concepts, the theoretical positions, approaches and methodology and the 'substantive knowledge' produced on the educational and the social situation of women and girls in India. This has to be viewed in the light of some significant events of the contemporaneous period, the most remarkable being

i Intensification of the activities to improve the educational and the health situation of the girl child and herself self image in the Region. Following the first national conference on the Girl Child in 1987, the result declaration of the SAARC Year of the Girl Child in 1990 and later, the SAARC Decade of the Girl Child (1991-2000). A National Plan of Action for the Girl Child (1991-2000) was prepared by India in keeping with this new commitment.

ii The National Perspective Plan on Women (1988) was drawn up for mainstreaming of women's issues in policies and programmes, especially for women from rural areas and the underprivileged sections. Key issue were giving women at least one third share in all decision making bodies and levels from *Panchayats* to the National Parliament, in bureaucracy, in selection committees, in all policy making organs (gradually being implemented).

iii *Shramshakti* - the Report of the National Commission for Self Employed Women and the Women in the Informal Sector (1988) brought out the fact of gross exploitation of 94 percent of the entire female work force who are employed in the unorganized sector, and the fact that one third of all households from which they come are supported by women and in another one third, over 50 percent of the earnings are contributed by women. The recommendations included recognition of women's work as home makers and as economic producers by enlarging the definition of women workers in all subsequent data collection (carried out in 1991 Census) setting up of an exclusive credit body for poor and self employed women and linking all training programmes to employment of these women being implemented.

iv The National Literacy Mission (NLM) was launched as a societal and technology mission in 1988 for imparting functional literacy to 80 million illiterate adults in 15-35 age group by 1995 bulk of whom were women. The NLM adopted the Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) as a principal strategy for achieving universal literacy. The TLC is an area specific, time bound, volunteer based mass campaign, built through mass mobilisation and support of the Central and State Governments, district administrations non-governmental organizations, voluntary agencies and people from all walks of life (MHRD 1993).

v The revision of the National Policy on Education, 1986 and its Programme of Action in 1992, re-emphasised the interventionists role of education in bringing about women's empowerment through revision of curricula and text books, gender sensitization of all educational personnel across board, early removal of female literacy and universalisation of elementary education, vocational and technical education of girls especially in non traditional and emerging technologies with women's studies playing a premier role in analyzing, generating and supporting action. Education of rural girls and women was put high on agenda noticing that rural urban disparities were the sharpest in literacy rates and educational participation at all levels, especially in the area of vocational and technical education. Continued shortage of women teachers in rural areas was seen as a problem yet to be negotiated (Studies Commissioned) (MHRD, 1992).

vi The launching of *Mahila Samakhya* in 1989 in three states, Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka and Gujarat by the Department of Education of the Ministry of Human Resource Development of the Government of India was another strategy for women's development. *Mahila Samakhya*, a women's development empowerment project is state sponsored, imbued with Indian and Nordic Feminism which "pre-supposes that education can be a decisive intervention in the process towards women's equality". The project goal is 'to empower women to take control of their own lives' and question the patriarchal mores and forms of social organisations that paralyse women and put into limbo their power (*shakti*). The project aims to create a demand for literacy but at the pace determined by the participating women themselves. Without the pressure for fulfilling quantitative targets, the resource persons have more

time to catalyze an attitudinal change in the women and their communities (Evaluation studies needed) (MHRD, 1993)

vii The 1991 Census of India gave some positive indications like higher growth rates in female literacy compared to male literacy, improved work participation rate and the shocking revelation that the sex ratio which had been declining till 1971, took an upturn in 1981, again crashed to a new low of 927 females for 1000 males in the population, leaving a major gap of 32 million fewer females in a population of 844 millions. The more alarming situation was noticed in the higher decline among children of age group 0-6 years, with 4 million fewer girls in this age group. (Studies were commissioned by the Department of Women and Child Development, MHRD, in 65 Districts with most adverse sex ratio to female children in the age group 0-6 years, anticipating female infanticide, female foeticide and female neglect as the possible causes.)

viii The Fifth All India Educational Survey of NCERT (1988) which is based on school census and which puts out rural urban data on educational indicators.

ix Setting up of department/cells/centres of Women's Studies by the NCERT, the SCERTs and the University Grants Commission in the universities and colleges

In the light of the above, it may be stated that the premier area of concern about the education of the girl child has drawn repeated attention of researchers, leading to formulation of programmes of action. In the area of elementary education, the studies bring out very clearly the factors responsible for continuance, discontinuance and non enrolment of girls in schools. Predominantly the household factors of poverty and gender discrimination and community related social constraints account for girls not enrolling, dropping out. The studies reconfirm the positive relationship between the economic standing of the household and female educational participation (Nayar, 1992). The area of gender and achievement, however, has not been sufficiently explored and needs attention both in research and meliorative action in the form of compensatory education for the girls in the disadvantaged groups. The issues of the health and nutrition of the girl child have not been attended to both in research and in action. A comprehensive study on the girl child in India was launched by the Department of Women and Child Development, MHRD, Government of India through Women's Studies Centres of the Universities in 1992. It may be pertinent to point out that in the present scheme of things girls in the age groups 6-18 are not covered under any government programme for health care and nutrition. A major chunk of girls in the age group are out of school and are being addressed through NFE, TLC and distance education. There is very little research reported on these three areas in the Fifth Survey. Further, the problems addressed and issues raised in relation to adolescent girls are primarily concerning adjustment, socio-psychological problems and self concept of school and college going girls. There is little research on education of out of school girls. The scheme of the Government of India like Balika Yojana are meant for out of school adolescent girls and needs to be probed into with respect to its implementation to give us a measure of its achievements and shortfalls.

A large number of special schemes and incentives have been in operation for decades specially for girls and women belonging to scheduled caste and scheduled tribes. While some studies in the Fifth Survey bring out the positive impact of education on the attitudes of these groups, they also point out that despite acquiring educational and technical competence women of these groups find it hard to get employment. This raised further questions regarding the possible gender discrimination in hiring practices even where quotas for these groups are assured. When we view macro indicators, the positive effects of protective discrimination policies and programmes for SC, ST are visible in improved literacy rates and enrolment, but dropout continues to be very heavy. However, a study of an Ashram School in Madhya Pradesh which points to many lacunae in their management also reports sufficient progress by girls who complete their schooling. Out standing experiments have not been studied for instance the Kanya Parishad (a residential school complex for SC ST girls) in Kokshu (District Dhar) whose students compare favourably in self confidence, neatness articulation and achievement with any of the leading high fee private schools of metropolitan cities.

Also, the impact of the large number of incentive schemes for girls and women of the Government of India and the State Governments has not been studied. A regular flow of evaluative studies to document the successes and failures of these schemes and other gender interventions is necessary. These studies are best carried out by autonomous evaluation organizations and academic institutions. Without adequate data and research, effective policy and planning interventions cannot be made.

Major achievements and constraints of process oriented projects like Mahila Samakhyas and other EFA initiatives like Lokjumbish Basic Education Project, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar Education Project and more recently, the District Education Programme (all claim girls child focus), need intensive studies by researchers besides formal evaluation by the funding agencies (MHRD, 1993)

While an analysis of the TLC campaigns shows that women form the bulk of the beneficiaries, the content and process of these campaigns needs to be studied thoroughly from the point of view of gender equity and awareness. The few studies in this area point out (a) the infrastructural and the planning and management deficiencies of adult learning centres. At least one study brings out very clearly the continued presentation of women in gender stereotyped roles in the literacy materials. Their inadequacy regarding lack of information on the legal rights of women both among men and women, and a lack of gender sensitivity needs to be probed into. The materials produced by an NGO, more diversified in their packaging, were found very radical in their messages and that of the government somewhat reactionary. The content and process of the TLCs requires immediate attention with a view to making them powerful agents of women's empowerment. Comparatively the content and process of school curriculum especially at the elementary stage appears to have received significant attention. At the present moment, the text books for instance display a continuum from stereo-typed and often negative portrayal of women and girls to highly gender sensitive materials depicting equality between the sexes. However, more work needs to be done in the area of the portrayal of the positive contribution of women in all walks of life.

The area of vocational and technical education of girls has received some attention in the Fifth Survey and provides both policy and programme interventions, giving primacy to need based vocational education of girls and women to help them forge ahead in non-traditional occupations. Although girls and women have entered into hitherto male occupations, studies show it is not always on terms of equality. A lot more work is required in the area of gender analysis of existing vocational and technical education programmes supported through micro studies so that girls and women succeed in the occupational fields. Studies of occupational career guidance and counselling draws a blank. Studies on social mobility of women are few and studies about education and employment linkages in terms of entry requirements, recruitment and transfer procedures, wages, leave and other benefits as required under law, need investigation.

While there are a large number of studies showing the positive impact of women's education on their awareness, attitudes, and positions taken on personal issues of marriage and family, the study of women as professionals are limited. There are several investigations on women teachers which are largely centred on the issue of role combination the familial and the occupational and role performance. There are few studies on women administrators and executives in education or in other development fields which shows that there is lack of consciousness regarding women's contribution to development in real terms. There is a lone study which speaks of the low political participation of the rural women. It would be interesting to study the political participation and political behaviour of both rural and urban women belonging to different classes and caste, groups, using education as a major variable. Some studies of college girls included in the Fifth Survey do indicate higher political consciousness in women in higher education.

The role of media as a major instrument of formation of public opinion and attitudes regarding women remains poorly explored. Only one study touches on the role of women's magazines. There are three studies on state sponsored women's groups (mahila mandals) which bring out the ineffectiveness of these groups on account of bureaucratic control and inadequacy of both infrastructure and management skills. The mahila mandals further appeared dominated by the traditional elites. However, a very recent study explored the role of mahila mandals in acting as nurseries for women elected leaders in local self government and found a lot of potential in these groups if conscious intervention is made.

Having looked at the substantive knowledge generated on education of girls and women upto the period of the Fifth Survey, it may be appropriate to look at the evolution in the area of meta knowledge. It may be recounted that educational research has been more empirical than many other social sciences ever since its inception. As is evident in the earlier sections, while one third of the researches recorded up to 1965 were based on secondary data and sources, the rest of the studies were empirical. Further, in all five surveys, the researches reported are largely empirical studies. For record, we may also state that a research investigation is a must as a part fulfilment of a Masters in Education Programme, and most of these investigations, and doctoral projects in the Faculties of

Education have studied convenient samples/populations available to them without cost i.e., school and college girls and women teachers in urban areas, where their own institutions are located (As these researchers have little funding support, this limitation is not theirs really speaking)

Influenced largely by the discipline of psychology and psychometry, to be accurate, educational researches reflect the position of education as a discipline in the university system, removed from mainstream knowledge in other areas, its relative isolation and low prestige in the hierarchy of knowledge, making the educational researchers relatively defensive and inward looking. To an extent, development of female education has been studied to bring out the temporal and spatial dimensions of women's education but these studies do not reflect in any real sense the methodological rigour of the social sciences. Bulk of the research on women's education has been done in the departments of education, sociologists have also displayed some interest but there is a rare thesis from the departments of economics, political science, history, among others

The perspectives in most studies till the Fourth Survey are distinctly drawn from the framework of social change where education of women leads to modernization of their attitudes and roles making some difference in their position vis-a-vis areas like family decision making, marriage and employment. The equality between the sexes dimension does not emerge, at best an emancipatory role for education (better than before) is visible. That education is necessary for women and has a positive effect on women, their family and productivity is admitted

The Fifth Survey makes a departure when equality between the sexes enters centre stage and education is seen as an agent of empowerment, increased self awareness, better self image, consciousness of rights and possibilities opening up to women with education. Women with higher education professional and technical, emerge as more self confident and in better command of their situation than before even if they may not have achieved complete equality. To be more precise several studies reported appear to be influenced by the concepts, techniques and methodologies thrown up by feminist scholars and activists, as reflected in the new discipline of women's studies. Women's Studies which were born out of women's activism continue to respond to changing the situation of women in a positive direction and above all making knowledge more holistic to include the female perspectives their hopes and aspirations and a world view based on accommodation, harmony and peace. The centrality of education to develop of women as persons and women as active agents of national development is well established through national and cross cultural researches in the area of fertility and mortality. Women's Studies are the closest to field based disciplines of sociology and social anthropology and employ the methods and techniques that break the hierarchies between the researcher and the researches in the frame of participatory research, with major reliance on field based interactions individual and group interviews, focussed group discussions, participant observation and case studies

The fact noted by us earlier that educational research has by far been empirical and not 'arm chair' research is a happy augury in as much as that application of the theoretical constructs and methodologies of women's studies to the analysis of education of girls and women in all its ramifications does provide a framework for policy reform and action. In turn women's studies get enriched by the finer aspects of educational research tradition. It is however, important to acknowledge that while both the meta knowledge and substantive knowledge in the area of research on women's education appear to have advanced there continues to be relative lack of conceptual clarity and methodological rigour. Independent researches done by experienced researchers show a distinctly mature handling whereas the researches emerging from the university departments appear to be exercises in exigency of fulfilling the requirements of a degree. Looking at the positive side, one may state that while university researches are an exercise in learning the methodology of research and only have shelf value, their long term impact is realized through the work of mature researchers. Suffice it to say, that researches which influence policies and programmes of women's education and development did emerge largely from women's studies centres and scholars, from non governmental organisations and also from within the women's universities that are funded/sponsored by the government, UN and its agencies and other international organisations. The tradition of research based educational planning is being born as reflected in the District Primary Education Programme which has a component of gender studies as inputs into gender sensitive educational planning in 44 low female literacy districts of 8 states in the first phase

Comparative Studies in Women's Education

In India, there are 58 doctoral studies in comparative education reported in the IIIrd and IVth survey of research in education spanning the period 1973-1988. Among these, there is only one doctoral study in the area of women's education titled "Women Teachers in South Asia - A Comparative Study of India, Sri Lanka and Nepal". There are two other doctoral studies, one pertaining to Thailand by a Thai national and another by Bangladesh national submitted to Indian universities. The other notable independent field based studies on comparative education are "Education of Women in the Commonwealth - A Comparative Study covering India, Barbados, Fiji, Sri Lanka, Mauritius and New Zealand (Nayar, 1988-89), UNESCO sponsored study on "Women's Education in Asia and the Pacific - Some basic issues (1988-89), UNCHR sponsored study on Traditional Practices Affecting The Health of Women and Children in Asia and the Pacific Nayar, (1994) Women in Educational Administration in the Third World - The Indian Scene (Nayar, 1989)

Comparative method in education was applied to major intra country comparative studies relating to primary education of girls namely Factors of Continuance and Discontinuance Girls in Elementary Schooling (Delhi, Bombay, Orissa and Rajasthan) with focus on urban slums, scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and Muslim minorities (Nayar et al 1992). Nearly 3000 households were included to analyse the problem. The study drew its theoretical formulations from an earlier UNESCO sponsored study on Universalisation of Primary Education of Girls in Rural Areas in India and made a significant methodological contribution in the area of women's studies using the comparative method. The latest to report in the area of comparative education is Gender Studies carried out as a part of project planning and implementation of a national programme on primary education viz, District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) of the Ministry of Human Resource Development under which gender studies form one of base line studies carried out as a planning input. Gender studies were carried out in 44 low female literacy districts of eight states. The studies were carried out in the participatory research mode with household and community as entry points. Structured interview schedules were personally canvassed by the investigators to 13013 households, 2424 dropout girls, 4316 never enrolled girls, 792 teachers, 269 educational administrators and 416 community leaders. In addition, focussed group discussions were held with parents and community leaders (Nayar, 1994).

The Challenge

The researches and experience have proved beyond doubt that education is necessary for development of individuals and nations, that education is the basic right of all human beings men, women, girls, boys. That education has brought about attitudinal changes towards women, girls and their development. That educated girls and women themselves become more positively oriented to accepting and at times leading change. Theoretically the Indian laws, policies and programmes are geared to an egalitarian social order where women enjoy not only equality but also affirmative action on the part of the state also. On the ground are large number of programmes and schemes aiming at women's development, women's equality, women's empowerment with unqualified focus on education and health of the girl child. While these concrete programmes need to be studied there is still the major challenge of bringing about greater understanding and sensitivity to gender issues which is not a substitute for equality of numbers in all walks of life but involves a major qualitative change in the social roles and social relations between men and women in our society. Educational content and processes need to be studied, not only text books but classroom practices, teacher behaviour, media both as a support and a hurdle need to be understood. 18

India also needs to gear up to the numerous demands of a global market and strengthen its identity as a secular democratic nation. The economic reforms are on and there are requirements of structural adjustment programmes which are likely to dilute the social justice and welfarist orientation of the Indian state. This would have implications for education and society at several levels. Gender and economic reforms is a major area for study. In more than one sense, the Ninth Five Year Plan is the proverbial last leap into the next century. Education of girls and women has to be viewed in this context. Education of Muslim girls and women needs urgent attention as this section is absent even in statistics and is perhaps more backward than other disadvantaged sections which at least enjoy protective discrimination viz scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward castes.

Research has now to gear itself to supporting action through study, analysis, evaluation, documentation and dissemination. For carrying out the major task of building gender sensitivity a deeper study of

curriculum, its development, its transaction in the actual class room/learning situations would be required for preparing research based curricular and training materials. An inter country innovative pilot project sponsored by UNESCO does present a model for this task as operationalized by the Department of Women's Studies (DWS), NCERT (1992-98). Seven six week training programmes on methodology of women's education and development for resource persons have been organised by the NCERT utilising research findings in the area and a participatory training approach).

There exists a mammoth programme for early childhood care and education (ECCE) in India covering nearly 18 million children, forming less than half of the target population (below poverty line). Three major observations may be made: one, gender statistics on the integrated child development services (ICDS) are not available; two, the education component of ICDS continues to be weak, although the nutrition and health component appears to have benefited children from marginalized sections of population; the impact being visible in reduced infant and child mortality and near universalization of immunization; three, the component of gender sensitivity in the training of ICDS workers is absent. The research and development in this area can take on the form of needs assessment for training, preparation of training materials and designing gender interventions in the action research mode.

Conspicuous by its absence is the element of health and nutrition of the children in the elementary and secondary age group, especially during adolescence. School outcomes are not purely a function of academic and pedagogic inputs by the school but are in equal part influenced by the health and nutritional status of the children and adolescents. The low levels of nutritional intakes and attendant problems of depleted health status in conjunction with poor levels of health care in low income countries are factors that need careful study. In gender discriminatory cultures with a strong "son preference" behaviour, the intra household distribution of labour and resources is loaded against the girls, who work more and get lesser share of food, health care, leisure and play. For instance iron status was predictive of school achievement among adolescent girls in a Jamaican study, that is, lower the haemoglobin value, the lower the school attendance. In countries as far apart as Benin and Nepal, poor nutritional status was found related to school attendance of adolescents. One possible explanation was the long distances that these adolescents had to walk in addition to completing domestic chores. This greater energy expenditure was not compensated by greater energy intake, probably because there were no meals at school. The Mexico study showed that improved nutritional food supplementation in early childhood was related to higher cognitive development, a precursor of school achievement. Gender differences were also notable indicating unequal division of food and health care except in cultures like Philippines with a thoroughly pro girl child stance of the family - a logical result of the tradition where the parents in their old age are looked after by the daughters and not by the sons. The Indian situation in the study reflects the health and nutrition status of the girl from an urban slum. Studies of the rural adolescent girls in school and outside are needed for planning gender sensitive health and nutrition interventions in the educational programmes for the development of high quality human resource. This set of inter country studies by ICRW shows a definite link between educational achievement and health and nutritional status of children (Ibid).

Considerable work done in the area of UEE suggests a continuous need for research based educational planning at district, block, and cluster level. An important area requiring attention is the formal transfer of elementary and secondary education to the panchayats and local bodies (with one third women members and chairpersons). Gender sensitization of panchayat members and councillors is not only urgent but needs research based interventions. In rural areas there is continued shortage of women teachers. (In the Sixth All India Educational Survey, NCERT, 1995 found that women found 23% of primary teachers in rural areas compared to 60% in urban areas, at the upper primary the corresponding figures are 25% and 59%.)

In view of the promises made and the potential and actual participation of women in extra domestic spheres, the education and training of girls will have to be geared more and more to development of technical and technological skills and above all abilities of leadership, decision making, entrepreneurship and handling of public roles. The studies on second and third level vocational, technical and professional education are not sufficient to provide guidance for formulation of policies and programmes. These will have to be area specific and generic both. Many more studies are required for mapping out the interaction between education of women, media, women's movement and political participation, for the agenda now is not only emancipation on moral grounds but a clear demand for freedom from poverty and want on the part of women, and, a frank avowal of the need for

participating in the economic and political decisions about women, about, men, about nations, about the global questions

The researchers have a host of national and international policy documents to look for research agenda (besides their own felt needs), the most recent being the call of the world's women from Beijing in the form of a Platform of Action, which gives a clear mandate for action required for women's progress. It recommends twelve critical areas of concern which are considered the main obstacles to women's advancement. There has emerged a powerful recognition of the crucial role of women in sustainable development and protecting the environment, the recognition that the human rights of women are inalienable, integral and individual part of universal human rights, that violence against women is intolerable and a violation of these rights, that health, maternal care, reproductive choices and above all access to education and information are absolutely essential to the exercise by women of this fundamental right.

Considering education is by definition conservative, slow to change and status quoist, transforming it into a radical change agent as expected in the National Policy of Education, 1986 is a difficult task. The application of the concepts and constructs of women's studies born in the tradition of action and activism to educational process has to be carefully planned. Militancy is not an educational mode. Organised peaceful protest based on deep understanding and analysis of issues of social justice, human rights, gender equality, is perhaps needed nonetheless. Educational research has to respond at several levels, the required changes in curriculum and its transaction, the need for radical change in the gender perceptions of teachers and teacher educators, and linkages with and action required by other socializing agents, the parents, the community, the media.

Even though education of girls and women is considered as the key to all development, it does not receive resource allocations commensurate with its importance. Studies on financing of girls education are needed for better resource allocations so that this area graduates from being a policy rhetoric to a planned implementation reality. All educational programmes claiming gender as a focus need careful study from this angle. A study of basic issues in the education of women and girls in the Asia and Pacific Region Commissioned by the UNESCO (Nayar, 1989) brings out clearly that female literacy is dependent on the social policies and ideological persuasions regarding the roles and status of women in a particular culture. Female literacy has been achieved in countries with extremely low levels of income but with strong distributive social policies on health, education, training and employment. That 'education for all' cannot be achieved without 'health for all' and 'work for all' needs to be internalized. As the poverty of nations affects women and girls most in gender discriminatory societies, the national and international commitment has to address the question of better redistribution of the global and the national GDP. Women's education is a function of women's equality, which will not come about by mere provision of rights but by the ability of women to use those rights. The study makes a strong appeal to national leadership and the international organizations to address themselves to the gender question more squarely both in policy and implementation as studies in the economics of education tell us that both private and social returns to women's education are greater than those for men at virtually every level and 'at most' equal to those for men (Pscharopoulos, 1985).

The women's studies scholars and educational researchers are to rise to the occasion through mutual interaction feeding into the growth of both disciplines as well as all social sciences and pushing the advancement of women/humans further. The role of Comparative Education in identifying and clarifying issues of women's education and equality in societies like India in a state of permanent transition where tradition and modernity both exercise equal and opposite pulls at times where tradition at times triggers modernization or gets modernized itself (). In a heterogeneous country like India with a wide range of diverse cultural practices and traditions ranging from gender equalitarian matrilineal cultures to strongly patriarchal, patrilineal dominant groups, intra country comparisons are as valid as international comparisons.

Some Indicative Studies

Female Education and Changing Values and Attitudes

Several studies show that educated girls and women favour small family norm, equality of sexes and their participation in decision making process, use of contraceptives, spacing methods and adoption of family planning methods (Chaudhry 1988 , Fatima 1989). Chaudhry (1988) concluded in a study of educated girls in Patna (Bihar) that most of the respondents show awareness about minimum age at marriage prescribed by the law, the Dowry Prohibition Act, inter-caste and inter religious

marriage. However, a larger proportion of the respondents did not know fully the legal provisions of widow re-marriage, divorce, maintenance, adoption, etc. A significant proportion of them were aware property rights. Thus, bulk of the respondents had partial knowledge about the acts concerning their rights, but they are conscious of their rights. Educated girls favour small family norms, equality of sexes and their participation in decision making process, use of contraceptives spacing and so on. Positive change of attitude towards female education, co-education and female employment is reflected in the study. Respondents believed that education and employment provided higher capabilities to women for in adverse situations.

Sharma (1989) found that almost similar factors emerged in the students, and elites perceptions of superior academic success of girls. These relate to their adjustments, differential treatment of girls and boys, areas of interests, evaluation, cognition, commitment, and attitudes. But sometimes bipolarity of attitudes is impressed upon in the attitude continuum. The teaching and learning of science has been a male preserve. Women's entry to this field may be seen as an attempt to cross a social barrier. However women who enter science have been found more successful than men, and attitudinally better established.

Shukla (1995) in her study of attitude towards the role and the status of women in India felt that the balance in attitudinal change is still tilted. The attitude of men and women in various demographic groupings have not been changing at the same rate and some areas relating to family roles are particularly resistant to change. It may be pointed out that if genuine attitudinal shift is desired with respect to education, employment opportunities, abolition of dowry, rights of women, etc. policies and programmes must be directed towards the young and the old alike as it is often the old who socialize the young and put pressure on them to conform. It is a difficult task, but then, it is also a difficult goal to achieve.

Samanataray & Patnaik (1995) carried out a case study of gender discrimination among the school students in Ganjam district (Orissa). The investigator found that children belonging to urban locations feel less discrimination in bringing up by their parents as compared to rural background children. In schools both the group expressed no discrimination by the teachers.

Kaur (1997) reports that career oriented students have more positive attitude towards small family norm than marriage oriented girls. She also found that science girls have more positive attitude towards small family norm.

Socio Economic Correlates of Female Education

Jaiswal (1989) found that women scientists and engineers have better socio economic background than men. Men even with lesser educational attainment and relatively inferior socio economic background are placed at better occupational position compared to that of women. Significant differences are found in the academic achievement of men and women. The inter occupational mobility differs along sex. The study concludes that although the participation of women in science and engineering is nominal it is increasing nevertheless. Women have yet to achieve equal status with men. Considering these are women with a very high educational and occupational status their continued subservience to traditional male authority is surprising.

Joshi (1991) investigated the impact of socio familial factors and parental education on the rearing up practices of girls in Kumaon Hills (Uttaranchal). She found educated parents rear up their daughters more appropriately as compared to less educated parents. Small sized families rear up their daughters more appropriately and increase in family income has a positive impact. Kabra (1991) found family education and socio economic status were positively correlated in the case of both Scheduled Caste (SC) and non SC students in a study in Rajasthan. The participation in co-curricular activities was significantly lower in SC students than non SC students. Correlation between socio economic status and personality factor 'B' (intelligence) was found significant between the two groups. Majority of SC students had low level of social adjustment. Majority of SC girls had lower scholastic achievement. It was also found that the level of educational goals was significantly associated with the level of socio economic status for both SC and non SC girls. The occupational goal was significantly associated with the level of fathers' education and with scholastic achievement of the students of both groups.

Seymour (1995) explored the goals of girls' education in the town of Bhubneshwar in Orissa that had experienced recent growth and modernisation. The investigator found that increased availability of higher education leads to an increased desire for such education and is also challenging patrifocal family structure and ideology. Middle and upper class residents of Bhubneshwar responded positively to the new educational

arithmetic. The same was the case in Baroda. In Gujarat the girls of Ahmedabad and Baroda schools scored more than the boys. There are institutional differences in the performance of students in four fundamental operations in arithmetic. The children in the corporation schools show very poor performance in four fundamental operations. There are sex differences in the performance of students on test of four fundamental operations. The girls by and large show better performance than the boys.

Bhattacharya (1992) studied a group of 250 adolescent girl students from Bengali medium schools. She found that in 50% of the cases, factors like poor economic and still poorer educational status of parents, involvement of girls in domestic work, were responsible for irregular study habits of the scholastically backward girl students. Absence of frequent assessment on class work was found to be another important reason that led very often to neglect and delayed action or no action. The study concludes that although the causes for the scholastic backwardness of students are numerous, they are not beyond school control and timely interventions like continuous evaluation and remedial teaching can reduce this phenomenon considerably.

Busamma (1995) constructed and standardised a diagnostic test in exponents and powers in Class VII students in two districts namely Hyderabad and Rangareddy in Hyderabad. The investigator found that urban students proved to be better achiever than the rural students. There was significant difference in private and government schools. The study concluded that girls are better achiever than boys. Thus it can be stated that environmental and institutional factors play a significant role in achievement levels.

Low Enrolment and Drop out

Singhai (1986) in a study of college going girls of Indore (Madhya Pradesh) found that majority of girl students lay emphasis on employment opportunities, marriage situations and family environment. It was found that the social interests and attitude of adolescent girls are adequate, mature and stable. Majority of the girls were in favour of widow remarriage. Majority of the respondents favoured the idea of modification, correction and improvement in social attitudes and interests of adolescent girls. It was found that suitable environment influences development of healthy social interest and attitudes among students.

Singh (1988) in a study an investigation into the extent and causes of dropouts among girl students in the rural schools of Chandigarh found female literacy in rural areas is much less than in urban areas. Rural female literacy is much below than rural male literacy. The dropout rate of rural girls in class I at primary stage is higher as compared to that of other classes. The rate goes on decreasing with the advancement of class. The girls were generally weak in English, Mathematics and Science. Parents were not willing to send their daughters to schools because of domestic reasons. The study showed that people from Jat and Saini communities engaged their daughters on the fields for looking after the cattle etc. The Muslims marry off their daughters at an early age. Scheduled caste people are generally poor and are socially and educationally backward also. They sometimes force their daughters to supplement family income by doing utensil cleaning. Causes of dropping out of girl students were personal lack of interest, illness and weakness in subject, family factors, step mothers, domestic work, big family, parents' illiteracy, joint family and parents' illness, social factors, early marriage, 'others wealth' and orthodox thinking and economic factors, poverty and low income. Suggestions given for development of viable strategies are (a) seek the help of the community, (b) counselling services, (c) a planned programme of home visits, (d) adult education centres, (e) help students to understand their potential and develop self confidence for better understanding of selves, (f) incentives, (g) free uniform, (h) scholarship, (i) non graded system, (j) residential schools, (k) physical facilities, etc.

Ray (1989) found in a study in Orissa that drop out percentage is lower in higher castes as compared to lower caste groups. Majority of the respondents' parents preferred early marriage of girls. Most parents also object to sending mature girls to co-educational schools. Unemployment creates negative attitudes in parents towards education. Young male teachers are a substantive cause of withdrawal of girls by parents. Inconvenient school timings, school far away, lack of female teachers, lack of proper coaching for difficult subjects and heavy curriculum at secondary level are major school factors that lead to girls drop out. Household factors were also found to lead to dropout of girls. Majority of the girls responded

that they do sweeping of house, clean utensils, wash clothes, cook food, take care of younger siblings, fetch water, fodder and fuel. A number of them also assist their parents in their occupations. Dropout rate of girls in co educational schools, unaided schools and in schools of rural areas was found to be very high. Girls face difficulties in English, mathematics and science in classes VIII-X and are unable to cope with the heavy syllabus without coaching and extra help, hence dropout. The study concludes that negative attitudes to girls continue to prevail and girls are generally assigned all domestic tasks. Working mothers rely mostly on daughters for help. However, socio-economic constraints can perhaps be overcome if education for girls is available within the village.

Pandit (1989) in a study in Maharashtra found that the main causes of drop out among girls before passing S S C exam were poverty, unfavourable social ethos and early marriage.

Nayar (1989a) in her study on education of the child in India with special focus on girls found that more than half the children are born in the lap of extreme poverty and only 85 out of 100 live beyond their fourth birthday to become eligible for entry into the formal schools. Of the eligible preschoolers (3-6 years), only about one in every ten children are covered by ECCE programmes comprising ICDS, balwadis, Creches, ECE etc. The constitutional directive of UEE upto the age of fourteen years is a retain children of the disadvantaged sections especially girls. Education is available only to a few and many lives go still serious under provision in rural areas which affects girls more seriously. Curriculum, however, comprehensive on paper gets reduced to mere syllabus for academic subjects. Further curriculum has a class and sex bias.

Nayar (1989b) in a study of situational analysis of the girl child in Rajasthan found that provision of schooling/educational facilities for girls is low and its utilization is still lower on account of social, economic and attitudinal barriers and sheer physical distance. The curriculum and its transaction remains sex stereotyped and biased. The educational and the health interventions for raising the status of women have to be made in their lives early which is an indication to focus on the girl child. Investment in a girl child is an assured investment in the future of our nation, hence it is essential to earmark budgets for girls. A system of differential inputs would need to be evolved for removing the existing regional imbalances in education. This would require flexibility in norms of opening institutions, school timings, alternative schooling to meet the specific needs of girls in remote, rural communities and scattered populations. NFE would have to be a major strategy for reaching girls and preparation of women teachers/instructors of NFE is a major challenge for Rajasthan. Poverty and hunger are listed as the chief causes of non-enrolment and non-attendance of girls. Mobilisation of local women for forming action groups. But even among poverty households, boys are given preferential treatment for furthering education of girls and women can be done using the existing WDP (Women's Development Programme) of Rajasthan. Participation of women in the Panchayati Raj institutions and all modern professions and occupations would definitely raise the motivational levels of parents to educate their daughters. Early marriage spells unsafe motherhood thus retaining girls in educational system till 18-19 years is what educational planner should try and ensure. Raising the educational and employment potential of women through increased job opportunities would enhance girls' participation in education. Female education has more favourable effect on participation rates in the rural areas. More schools are needed and education has to reach the doorstep of the girl child in far flung habitations through part schools, mobile schools and distance education. If working girls are to be drawn to school, they must find a promise of a better future as individuals and as workers. Education of working children (girls) needs better conceptualization and different treatment for such children already have some life skills and need to integrate these with literacy.

Nayar (1991) in her study on universal primary education of rural girls in India found the need for a comprehensive policy on HRD and more holistic multi sectoral approach to human development is to be emphasized. There is need for reordering national priorities in terms of realistic targets and concrete budgetary provisions for (a) rural populations, (b) education sector, (c) elementary education, (d) primary education, and (e) the rural girl child. (iv) Primary education (including upper primary schooling) will have positive implications like reduced infant and child mortality and fertility. (v) It would be a mistake to view rural India as an aggregate. The larger the village, better are the infrastructure facilities of roads, electricity, health, education, banking etc. The small sized, isolated remote villages are bare and

steeped in poverty and want. Education has to be taken to these groups as they cannot come to education. Access to schooling, improved retention and achievement among rural girls need to be consciously worked for. There is the need to identify talented rural girls in class V, VIII, X and XII and to launch a National Scheme for Preparation of Rural Women Teachers in the educationally backward states. Departments/units like women studies should be created in MHRD and other national and state bodies. The final answer to the problem of UPE will rest on the extent to which the community and especially women can be mobilized and energized as a group (a) to create a favourable climate for girls' education and (b) more importantly to act as a pressure group which can make the school answerable in case of lapses and made accountable to the community.

Duggal (1992) studied access of Scheduled caste (SC) girls to elementary education. She found that the literacy rate in scheduled caste females was much lower in comparison to the general female literacy rate in rural areas and sex ratio among scheduled castes was higher in rural belts than the urban areas. Percentage of scheduled caste female teachers at the primary level was low and it was still lower at upper primary level in comparison to female teachers of other communities. Physical facilities in the sampled schools were inadequate. Even existing facilities were not properly utilized. The percentage of those school going girls was higher whose parents were skilled workers, in government, semi-government, private service or were self-employed than those whose parents were unskilled workers, agricultural labourers and cultivators. Educational incentives provided by the state government were inadequate and not received in time. Exposure to media had positive effect on educational status of all the SC girls. Inculcation of healthier living habits among the SC girls was likely to increase their enrolment, improved attendance and retention in the schools. Parents perceived that male teachers discriminated on the basis of sex of the students and it worked as a negative force in educational development of the girls. Career aspirations of the parents for the girls were not high. Main reasons which motivated scheduled caste parents to enroll their daughters in schools were to improve their marriage prospects, provide better employment facilities in future, equip them for efficient management of household chores, have knowledge about better upbringing of the children, acquire better communication skill by learning reading and writing, and to prepare them to have better treatment at their matrimonial homes. Co-education and posting of male teachers in higher proportion in the rural elementary schools also played a negative role in retaining girls in the schools.

Nayar (1992) in a study of dropout and non-enrolment among girls in rural Haryana found significant departures from conventional research in this area in that it looks at the problem from the angle of the users, the parents, the community, the girls themselves. The study employs the participatory research mode in which the researchers, the educational administrators and the parents/communities jointly explored the major issues and problems and identified practicable strategies for UPE among rural girls. Besides group discussions and observation, 92 households were visited for in depth interviews. A conference of state and district officials connected with primary education provided a further forum for finalizing the recommendations which later fed into the training of more than 400 teachers, teacher educators and educational administrators. Village profiles were prepared. She concluded that dropout and never enrolled girls belonged to below subsistence level households. Parents pointed out that education was not cost free and they found it difficult to meet non-tuition costs like uniforms, books and money for Boys' fund, Red Cross Fund etc. Domestic work and sibling care were the chief reasons for girls not attending school. From fetching water, fodder and fuel to care of livestock, washing, cooking, cleaning, looking after the younger siblings were tasks that kept these girls busy. Increased agricultural prosperity has brought misery to women's lives as the number of livestock has increased substantially and all of it means more and endless work for women and girls. The demand for women teachers was strong in Mewat as also the need for an Urdu teacher. The dropout girls, however, expressed their willingness to return to school (which most of them had liked) given an opportunity. The parents of such girls were apathetic and had lower educational and occupational aspirations for daughters compared to sons and saw girls as less equal than boys. Access is not much of a problem, all villages barring some *dhanis* (hamlets) are served by a primary school. Dropout is negligible in the age group 6-8 years and is maximum after Class V. Nearly all women teachers commute to villages from cities and towns and hence did not interact with the communities, nor followed dropout girls. The study recommended rationalization of teachers between rural and urban areas to ensure at least one woman teacher in every primary school, opening of

junior primary or feeder schools in *dhanis*, extension of incentives of free books, uniforms and stationery to all girls in poverty groups regardless of caste, noon meal, extending child care facilities within/near the school to free girls from sibling care and better coordination with ICDS (Anganwadis), creating a positive climate for girls and their educational development breaking the curse of low valuation and poor status of women in a materially prosperous state

Nayar and others (1992) in a study of factors for continuance and discontinuance of girls in elementary schooling identified factors affecting continuance and discontinuance of girls in elementary schooling, enrolment, retention, drop out , non - enrolment ,attendance and high performance level among girls. They found major correlates of continuance were better economic standing of the household, parental education and motivation and a supportive enabling home climate. Domestic work and sibling care were the chief causes of girls dropping out in addition to cultural constraints on onset of puberty, early marriage, sex segregation and *purdah*. Collection of water, fodder, fuel are additional tasks and many girls help or substitute mothers in wage earning work. Gender discrimination is evident in intra household distribution of food, health care, education, play and recreation. Girls receive less than boys and feel discriminated against. Parents have substantially lower educational and occupational aspirations for daughters and do not subscribe to equality between sexes. Parents are unwilling to invest on the education of daughters who they feel are temporary members. Often they are too poor to bear the non tuition costs, more so for girls. While most of the factors for non enrolment are likewise rooted in gender-caste-class combine lack of schools within or close to habitation are among the chief causes of non enrolment. In the absence of a middle school close by even those girls who complete primary stage, dropout. The inter state, inter group and rural urban variations were several indicating the need for micro studies and local level community based planning of girls' education. Access was poor, for both the tribal girls as well as for the (Delhi) urban slum girl. For instance, access and retention was higher among Delhi rural girls compared to those living in unhygienic, poorly serviced city slums. Even among slums, those in Bombay defend measurably from Delhi, Ajmer or Cuttack, the former city has a well developed network of schools. Strategies proposed range from providing schooling or its alternatives of the door step of the girl child strengthening of support services especially water sanitation and cheap fuel are to be considered in addition to providing child care services. Post primary education is likewise to be specially planned and geared to the lower physical mobility of girls in rural remote areas. Distance education may be cheaper alternative, residential schools being the most desirable form. Single sex schools are demanded by several rural communities and by Muslim populations. Perhaps, more women teachers, if inducted may meet the bill. General poverty alleviation programmes with a gender focus will impact on girls education positively in the long run. The resistance to girls education is otherwise breaking down.

Hari Chandran (1992) found in his study on Girls' Education in India that participation of girls in enrolment decreases with the increase in the level of schooling. The under representation of girls in schools may not be due to inequalities in opportunities as much as the biased attitudes in the society towards female education in general. Rural urban differences are very significant in case of girl's participation in schools.

Nayar (1994) conducted gender studies in 44 districts of 8 states with a view to providing inputs for project formulation / appraisal of the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) and for identifying areas of intervention for universalisation of education for girls with focus on gender equality and empowerment. This national project was aimed at building state level capacities in field based research as a need to educational planning and implementation. These studies provided the base line data and understandings about the existing gender disparities in education rising out of sustained gender discrimination faced by girls and women over time. These studies were carried out in the participatory mode with household and the community as the entry points. Structured schedules were personally canvassed by the field investigators in 13013 households, and to 2424 dropout girls, 4316 never enrolled girls, 792 teachers, 269 educational administrators and 416 community leaders in more than 400 villages and urban slums. In addition focussed group discussions with parents and community members were conducted to gain further understanding of the problem of girls' education, their views on utility of girls' education and gender equality in these states.

While there emerged a large number of common reasons for the twin phenomena of drop out and non enrolment among underdeveloped rural areas and under served urban slums in all low female literacy

districts, the intensity of factors affecting drop out and non enrolment varies as between educationally advanced states of the north. Moreover, the perceptions of the parents and the educational practitioners differ with the former highlighting non- tuition cost of education and the latter emphasizing parental illiteracy and apathy as the cause. Domestic work and sibling care is seen by both the groups as the major constraint. Household related factors have emerged as the major explanatory cluster for low enrolment and high drop out of girls in addition to community related factors like early marriage and taboo on movement of post pubertal on account of lack of safety. Parents of drop out and never enrolled girls are largely illiterate especially the mothers. Despite disclaimers from parents, the drop out and never enrolled girls do feel discriminated against compared to their brothers at home. Also, parents have lower educational and occupational aspirations for daughters as compared to sons. Gender equality scores of parents in these low literacy areas is lower than that of educational practitioners. Likewise, girl's education is caught in the poverty - gender - caste / tribe combine - a triple jeopardy. There are significant inter state and inter district variations in the situation of women which warrant more anthropological field studies for designing gender inclusive curriculum and other strategies for women's equality and empowerment. The school goes girls come from relatively better off households with one or both parents having education and a relatively stable income. The economic standing of the household thus appears as the major determinant of female educational participation on the demand side. Availability of a school close to the household within the village does attract girls but still leaves out those from poverty households with two parents always hunting for subsistence and the girls weighed with sibling care, domestic work, fetching of water, fodder and fuel. At nine or ten, they become child labourers where wage work is available, others help parents in their economic and other work.

The teachers and the administrators were found to be very gender egalitarian as compared to parents as regarding equal food, equal education, equal opportunities for play, equal health care and medical attention. Nearly all agreed that both boys and girls have the same abilities and capabilities and given a chance would be able to perform all tasks equally well while not all parents thought so. Both the parents and educators favoured equal wages for equal work, joint decisions, sharing of household work by all family members. However, very few agreed with the proposition that property should be shared equally between sons and daughters and the family assets should be jointly registered in the names of both the husband and the wife. All groups including the parents now do realize the utility of educating girls and there does not appear to be any serious opposition to girl's education. This really makes a shift from earlier periods when there was stiff resistance to education of girls even among the well off groups. Now it is mainly girls and boys of the poorest, the SCs and the landless who are drop outs and are not enrolled in school.

Pushpanjali (1995) in her article on Gender discrimination among the school students in the field of education has drawn attention of the social scientists. Pushpanjali and Patnaik (1995) tried to explore whether there is any gender discrimination at the school level in District Ganjam in Orissa. The investigators found that male dominance seems to be prevailing among the school going children. The results reveal that there was no gender discrimination at any level on the part of the school. Both urban and rural students have expressed they did not feel any discrimination based on gender. However, they felt that the phenomenon needs an intensive study on a larger population for generalization.

Madhav (1996) tried to identify hindrances faced by rural girls in joining school. Economic factor was predominant and the organisational, physical and educational factors did deter girls both in rural and urban areas.

Nayar (1996) analyzed the factors for low enrolment and for retention for girls at the elementary stage in the four most educationally backward states of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh. In these states large inequalities persist not only in education but also in the socio economic and demographic indicators. Female literacy rate is very low. While the birth rates, death rates and infant mortality rates are very high in these states. Girls can not cover the distances beyond their village / habitation boundaries resulting in non-enrolment or drop outs especially at the upper primary stage. The number of middle schools drops down suddenly. Major hurdle faced by rural girls is the non-availability of post primary education in their village of residence. Rural girls, therefore, do not complete 10 to 12 years of schooling which is an entry requirement for further training or higher education. Upper class families stay in the middle / centre of the village and socially disadvantaged sections of the society reside in the periphery of

the village. In case of girls there is an additional problem of personal security and safety. Parents do not send their girls too far. The study, however, shows that they are in favour of girls' education and would like to send their daughters outside the villages provided safe transport facilities were available. The recommendations of teachers and the parents were village lacking in middle and high school should be provided with, separate girls schools at middle level should be provided, incentives given to the students should be wide coverage and the quality should be improved, female teachers should be appointed in co educational schools, steps should be taken to enhance security for senior girls in schools, separate toilet facilities should be provided to girls in schools, transport facilities for girls should be encouraged. Some elderly women can take responsibility of girls to schools. The main reasons for girls' dropping out from schools are domestic work, sibling care, early marriage, purdah, tough curriculum and lack of women teachers. Parents demanded higher education for their sons but only primary education for their daughters. Parents want their daughters be teachers and sons in government job.

In the Muslim block of Moradabad district (Uttar Pradesh) the main factors for retardation of the education of Muslim girls were, poverty, acute religious fanaticism, *purdah* and desire of parents to send their children to Madrasahs, engagement in remunerative works as beedi rolling, spinning, and weaving, lack of motivation among parents and children both, sibling care and lack of women teachers. Seventy six percent parents expressed their strong desire for awareness campaigns about girls' education, need for women teachers and separate schools for girls at the upper primary stage. In addition, there should be adequate facilities for vocational courses for girls in schools. In the study of factors for continuance and discontinuance of girls in elementary schooling (Nayar et al 1992) – a case study of two urban slums of Ajmer district (Rajasthan), a muslim dominated locality on either side of Durgah Khawaja Moyn – ud – din Chisty was done. The investigator found people were engaged largely in wage labour activities in one basti and the residents of other basti were mainly Khadim (workers) in the Dargah. Although, they had better economic standing, yet their living standards were very low. All the respondents were very conservative, they did not want to send their daughters to schools. They wanted separate schools for girls and also demanded women teachers in schools. In DPEP Gender Studies (Nayar, 1997) Muslim dominated districts like Dibrui (Assam), Malapuram (Kerala), Dharmapuri (Tamil Nadu), gave similar reasons for educational backwardness of Muslim girls. But in the matrilineal society of the Union Territory of Lakshadweep, universalisation of elementary education of eight years exists. Girls continue to high school when available in the same island but rarely would go to high school situated elsewhere. Although there are no restrictions on girls and provision exists for free higher studies in the mainland, the utilization of these facilities by girls is very low. As the girls continue to stay with the parents even after marriage, girls rarely leave their natal home. It was noticed that even those who had been trained for professions like computers and other trades were serving as clerks in the island just to be able to stay with the parents and to look after them. There is no *purdah* among women. Girls and women move about freely and the crime rate is nil. But the educational aspirations of parents for their daughters and the girls themselves were very low. The reason given by the parents was non availability of high schools in all the islands and children have to go to mainland for higher studies (Nayar et al 2001).

Pandya Rameshwari (1999) in a study in Andhra Pradesh reported financial constraints as the main reason for girls not enrolling in higher education or dropping out soon after joining. Also, even parents from middle lower middle class feel it was better to save money for her dowry, which they have to give in any case. Scarcity of good colleges and universities and not getting admission are also serious problems faced by them. It was felt by some parents that higher education for girls resulted in late marriage often spinsterhood. Thus, the problem of girls' higher education losing to marriage is very common. In rural areas her survey showed that 75% of girls lost out on education due to marriage and gave up their studies to enter home life. She recommends greater and extensive availability of support structures like hostels and programmes of scholarships and financial assistance for girls on a liberal scale.

Rathaur (1999) carried out a case study of an NGO effort in the education of the rural girl child in district Jaunpur of Uttar Pradesh. The investigator found that literacy drive got a boost only after the NGO (Parivarthan) started establishing centers for non formal education and bringing children especially the school drop outs for informal learning process. Thus created awareness the importance of literacy for girls. Parents generally do not prefer girl's education because they want them to be married early. There is no awareness about family planning. Majority of the children attends government schools, a few come to the

NGO's learning centre Bulk of such children belongs to OBC and SC groups and some from Rajputs None of the respondent was wealthy, very few had a monthly income of Rupees 1000 / - irrespective of caste

Gender , Achievement and Aspirations

Pal & Natrajan Chitra (1997) attempted to explore gender differences on Mathematics achievements in Maharashtra schools The investigators found that there were no significant gender differences on mathematics attitude, perceptions of mathematics and liking towards mathematics teaching. The girls had comparatively more favorable attitudes towards mathematics than boys did Mathematics as a difficult subject equally perceived by both A comparison revealed that urban boys and girls had significantly better scores on mathematics achievements than their counterparts in the rural areas

Parveen (1999) studied the relationships of mothers aspirations and involvement level with the scholastic achievement of their children She found the results of the study as contrary to the general believe that boys get more care, involvement and encouragement from mothers than girls Results share similarity with some other research findings that girls get greater parental encouragement Mothers of total sample were found aspiring high for the academic careers of their children and the very strong association was found between academic excellence to the child and of the mother's aspiration level However, maximum number of mothers aspired educating their boys up to graduation or post graduation No mother aspired class ten for her son while in the case of girls mother's aspiration level ranged between class ten to post graduation

Suman (1986) found that the Father's education had a significant positive association with educational goals of girls Jain (1990) studied rural and urban adolescent girls and found that both sets aspired to study science as their first preference Both preferred government service, other fields being banking, civil services and clerical work The aspiration level of both rural and urban adolescent girls was found to be average The study recommends that utmost importance be given to co-curricular activities and guidance programme which may be helpful for developing desirable values and personality traits in among girls

A large number of studies carried out by the Department of Women s Studies , NCERT studied parental educational and occupational aspirations for their children Navar et Al (1995, 1996, 1997, 2000, 2001) found that although there is positive attitude towards education of their daughters , the parents continue to have lower educational aspirations for girls compared to boys Further the occupational aspirations are still gender stereotyped – girls to become teachers , doctors boys to engineers and government servants It is only among the urban professionals educated middle classes where girls and parents support higher education for girls and their entry into non-traditional career face little gender discrimination Studies on educational and occupational aspirations for school going children , however, show that given an opportunity girls wish to study such courses which would give them employment and a new status

Vocationalization of Education

Disaria (1991) found that majority of the girls in the schools want to learn skills for self employment and most of the out of school working girls wanted to have education so that they could do their own work without the help of intermediaries and with better skills The girls studying in the industrial training institutes have a desire to obtain proficiency for self-employment Girls in the schools informed that their parents did not motivate them, it was their peer group, and their brothers in several cases who encouraged them to go for vocational education However, girls in the technical institutes stated that their parents had been willing to send them to these institutes despite their being economically well off largely because of their lower academic achievement The parents saw vocational education as a facilitating factor for marriage The study concludes that a two pronged effort has to be made in order to attract girls to non-traditional occupations, (a) by providing guidance and counseling services, (b) providing facilities especially to girls from rural areas and urban slums in the form of free ships , residential facilities and above all training for self employment in both traditional and non-traditional trades and (c) expanding general education for rural girls to enable them to enter vocational and technical education

Nagar (1991) studied the vocational aspirations of educated girls in Gorakhpur division (Uttar Pradesh) . The investigator found that there is a consistent pattern of relationship between the intelligence level and socio-economic status at all the three educational levels . As the educational level increases, the socio-economic status and intelligence profile shows an upward trend. Location, too, exerts an influence . Level of education does influence the vocational aspiration of girls at different levels of education . Also the other vocations aspired for, differed with educational levels . A significant difference in the vocational aspiration of urban and rural respondents showed highest preference for household vocations whereas the urban counterparts have preferred the scientific area . A perusal of the results of vocational choice also highlights only a few vocational areas such as scientific, artistic, household, executive and literary . This is indicative of the influence of vocational facilities on vocational aspirations .

Nayar (1991) in a study on measures to increased participation of girls and women in vocational, technical and professional education in India found the low occupational diversification among girls at the secondary level . Policy gains of Indian women are substantial but there are serious implementation gaps . The policy of undifferentiated curricula gets diluted in action . Gender stereotyping of vocational technical and professional courses continues both within the formal and non formal sectors of education and training . Gender stereotypes are harder to break for men . Vocational, technical and professional education of women appears to have advanced relatively faster in the major industrial states of India, viz , Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra and even low literacy Andhra Pradesh . Rajasthan with lowest female literacy rate in the country is also low on industrialization and spread of technical education, women work in traditional crafts typed as female . All vocational, technical and professional institutions and training is urban located, urban led and excludes rural girls and women completely . Even non formal/income generation skills development courses for rural women are organized away from the rural service . NGO's working in this area are also urban based . The problem is more fundamental . Rural girls at best have accesses to primary schooling as the number of post primary institutions in rural areas dwindles . Only one of out every 100 rural girls entering school reaches Class XII, the entry point for all second and third level technical and professional education . The non formal education/training programmes are at times too short (6 days to 6 months) in duration, lack professional management and trained instructors, do not give training in self employment marketing and entrepreneurship and hence end up with providing shoddy skills that are unsaleable . Low participation of women in formal and non formal training needs more in depth work . Gender sensitization of planners and curriculum developers can yield positive results in breaking stereotypes and getting girls and women to enter non traditional vocations . Career guidance and counselling are needed not for girls only, but for the teachers and parents as well . Besides expanding educational facilities quality of teaching of science and mathematics to girls needs to be improved as many get dissuaded and give up these subjects as soon as they can . Some states continue to make the mistake of allowing girls to take home science or domestic accounts as lieu subjects . School text books should be screened for poor presentation of women in domestic roles only and alternately present women in a large range of occupations including some very off beat once .

Johnson & Asha (1993) in their study of effects of gender and urban – rural rearing on vocational maturity found that urban residential background seemed to have a facilitating effect on the vocational maturity of females .

Gender Bias in Text Books

The first attempts to review textbooks for sex bias were made in the 1980s by Kalra (1982) and Kamlesh Nischol . Indra Kulshreshita (1985) . The National Policy on Education (NPE) 1986 strongly recommended the need to remove sex bias from the textbooks following which the department of Women's Studies at NCERT undertook major exercises both at the National and the State levels .

Michael (1991) in a study of sexist bias in Tamil Nadu primary school textbooks found a significant mean difference between primary school boys and girls in levels of self-concept . The level of self-concept of primary school boys is higher than that of primary school girls . It is inferred from this study that there is significant relation between the input of male or female centered content in the textbook and the level of self-concept of primary school boys and girls . Significant relationship is confirmed between the mean and certain trait descriptive adjectives of self-concept of the primary school boys and the male . Centered

textbook content, describing the respective adjectives. In spite of repeated guidelines for developing non-sexist curricula, primary school textbooks were gender biased.

Saxena (1991) analyzed in her study on educational material for women the values and ideals embodied in educational materials for adult women currently in use by the government and the voluntary organizations. She found that there is an ideological difference in the approach of the government and the voluntary agency. As compared to the former, the latter follows a clearly feminist approach. Government's material was available only as books / booklets. Government stresses literacy as the most important tool of education. On the other hand, voluntary organizations use literacy as an instrument for change and stresses more on organizing women to alleviate their status and condition. The study concludes that there is a big lacuna between what the government proposes in its policies and the materials it puts out. Most of the government material was found to be discussing and describing the traditional roles of women.

Banda (1992) found that the traditional roles of women have changed considerably but the constitutional guarantees of equality between sexes and changed roles do not find adequate reflection in the textbooks. There is inclusion of some positive aspects of the status of women in respect of self-reliance, mutual cooperation, understanding, and women as a source of inspiration, and as symbols of love and sacrifice. On the other hand, the respondents found that the text books were male oriented, contained derogatory remarks against women showing them as dependent and perpetuating false beliefs and sex stereotypes, carried illustrations diminishing the status of women and that the authors and illustrators (artists) were primarily male. The study strongly endorses the inclusion of equality of sexes as one of the ten core values in the National Curricular Framework (NCERT) in response to the National Policy of Education 1986 call for removal of gender disparities and making education a vehicle of women's equality and empowerment. The study recommends rewriting of text books to reflect the considerable progress and contribution of women to socio economic and educational fields and making schools the agents through which positive attitudinal changes towards women can be brought about.

Due to persistent efforts of NCERT and their state counterparts (SCERTs and SIEs) elimination of gender bias from textbooks and preparation of gender sensitive education materials became a hall mark of the EFA projects like the DPEP, the BEP, the Basic Education Project of Uttar Pradesh, *Lok Jumbish*, *Shiksha Karmi*. The highly sexist textbooks and negative portrayal of women in the 1970s are a thing of the past. Presently all effort is to make textbooks gender bias free and implicit conscious attempt is made to reflect contribution of women to all fields. The final exercise was carried out by the NCERT in 1997 to review the past efforts and to develop a strategy so that all new publications are gender inclusive and gender sensitive and become a source of changing the gender role perceptions of both boys and girls. In order to break gender stereotypes it was suggested that there is need to sensitize textbook writers and illustrators towards gender sensitivity. It should be made clear in advance how they can promote gender equality through the preparation of textbooks. The under-representation of female characters should be removed by addressing more problems / examples to girls / women as females constitute nearly 50 % of the total population and contribute equally to different walks of life, depict more girls / women in non-traditional, new roles in problems especially as traders, merchants, as shopkeepers / shop owners, workers, employees (in office, bank, factory etc.) the use of only male nouns and pronouns for human beings to introduce a unit or sub-units or to explain a concept should be avoided.

The Challenge Ahead

The researches and experience have proved beyond doubt that education is necessary for development of individuals and nations, that education is the basic right of all human beings men, women, girls, boys, that education has brought about attitudinal changes towards women, girls and their development, that educated girls and women themselves become more positively oriented to accepting and at times leading change. Theoretically the Indian laws, policies and programmes are geared to an egalitarian social order where women enjoy not only equality but also affirmative action on the part of the state also. On the ground are large number of programmes and schemes aiming at women's development, women's equality, women's empowerment with unqualified focus on education and health of the girl child. While these concrete programmes need to be studied there is still the major challenge of bringing about greater understanding

and sensitivity to gender issues which is not a substitute for equality of numbers in all walks of life but involves a major qualitative change in the social roles and social relations between men and women in our society. Educational content and processes need to be studied, not only text books but classroom practices, teacher behaviour, media both as a support and a hurdle need to be understood (Nayar 1995)

India also needs to gear up to the numerous demands of a global market and strengthen its identity as a secular democratic nation. The economic reforms are on and there are requirements of structural adjustment programmes which are likely to dilute the social justice and welfare orientation of the Indian state. This would have implications for education and society at several levels. Gender and economic reforms is a major area for study. In more than one sense, the Ninth Five Year Plan is the proverbial last leap into the next century. Education of girls and women has to be viewed in this context. Education of Muslim girls and women needs urgent attention as this section is absent even in statistics and is perhaps more backward than other disadvantaged sections which at least enjoy protective discrimination viz scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward castes.

Research has now to gear itself to supporting action through study, analysis, evaluation, documentation and dissemination. For carrying out the major task of building gender sensitivity a deeper study of curriculum, its development, its transaction in the actual class room/learning situations would be required for preparing research based curricular and training materials. An inter country innovative pilot project sponsored by UNESCO does present a model for this task as operationalized by the Department of Women's Studies (DWS), NCERT (1992) (Ibid). Ten six week training programmes on methodology of women's education and development for resource persons have been organised by the NCERT utilising research findings in the area and a participatory training approach.

There exists a mammoth programme for early childhood care and education (ECCE) in India covering nearly 18 million children, forming less than half of the target population (below poverty line). Three major observations may be made: one, gender statistics on the integrated child development services (ICDS) are not available, two, the education component of ICDS continues to be weak, although the nutrition and health component appears to have benefited children from marginalised sections of population, the impact being visible in reduced infant and child mortality and near universalisation of immunisation, three, the component of gender sensitivity in the training of ICDS workers is absent. The research and development in this area can take on the form of needs assessment for training, preparation of training materials and designing gender interventions in the action research mode.

Conspicuous by its absence is the element of health and nutrition of the children in the elementary and secondary age group, especially during adolescence. School outcomes are not purely a function of academic and pedagogic inputs by the school but are in equal part influenced by the health and nutritional status of the children and adolescents. The low levels of nutritional intakes and attendant problems of depleted health status in conjunction with poor levels of health care in low income countries are factors that need careful study. In gender discriminatory cultures with a strong "son preference" behaviour, the intra household distribution of labour and resources is loaded against the girls, who work more and get lesser share of food, health care, leisure and play. For instance, iron status was predictive of school achievement among adolescent girls in a Jamaican study: that is, lower the haemoglobin value, the lower the school attendance. In countries as far apart as Benin and Nepal, poor nutritional status was found related to school attendance of adolescents. One possible explanation was the long distances that these adolescents had to walk in addition to completing domestic chores. This greater energy expenditure was not compensated by greater energy intake, probably because there were no meals at school. The Mexico study showed that improved nutritional food supplementation in early childhood was related to higher cognitive development, a precursor of school achievement (Kurz, 1995). Gender differences were also notable indicating unequal division of food and health care except in cultures like Philippines with a thoroughly pro girl child stance of the family - a logical result of the tradition where the parents in their old age are looked after by the daughters and not by the sons. The Indian situation in the study reflects the health and nutrition status of the girl from an urban slum. Studies of the rural adolescent girls in school and outside are needed for planning gender sensitive health and nutrition interventions in the educational programmes for the development of high quality human resource. This set of inter country studies by ICRW shows a definite link between educational achievement and health and nutritional status of children (Ibid).

Considerable work done in the area of URE suggests a continuous need for research based educational planning at district, block, and cluster level. An important area requiring attention is the formal transfer of elementary and secondary education to the panchayats and local bodies (with one third women members and chairpersons). Gender sensitization of panchayat members and councillors is not only urgent but needs research based interventions. In rural areas, there is continued shortage of women teachers. (In the Sixth All India Educational Survey, NCERT, 1995 found that women found 23% of primary teachers in rural areas compared to 60% in urban areas, at the upper primary the corresponding figures are 25% and 59%.

In view of the promises made and the potential and actual participation of women in extra domestic spheres, the education and training of girls will have to be geared more and more to development of technical and technological skills and above all abilities of leadership, decision making, entrepreneurship and handling of public roles. The studies on second and third level vocational, technical and professional education are not sufficient to provide guidance for formulation of policies and programmes. These will have to be area specific and generic both (Nayar, 1991). Many more studies are required for mapping out the interaction between education of women, media, women's movement and political participation, for the agenda now is not only emancipation on moral grounds but a clear demand for freedom from poverty and want on the part of women, and, a frank avowal of the need for participating in the economic and political decisions about women, about men, about nations, about the global questions.

The researchers have a host of national and international policy documents to look for research agenda (besides their own felt needs) the most recent being the call of the world's women from Beijing in the form of a Platform of Action, which gives a clear mandate for action required for women's progress. It recommends twelve critical areas of concern which are considered the main obstacles to women's advancement. There has emerged a powerful recognition of the crucial role of women in sustainable development and protecting the environment, the recognition that the human rights of women are inalienable, integral and individual part of universal human rights that violence against women is intolerable and a violation of these rights, that health, maternal care reproductive choices and above all access to education and information are absolutely essential to the exercise by women of this fundamental right.

Considering education is by definition conservative, slow to change and status quoist, transforming it into a radical change agent as expected in the National Policy of Education, 1986 is a difficult task. The application of the concepts and constructs of women's studies born in the tradition of action and activism to educational process has to be carefully planned. Militancy is not an educational mode. Organised peaceful protest based on deep understanding and analysis of issues of social justice, human rights gender equality is perhaps needed nonetheless. Educational research has to respond at several levels the required changes in curriculum and its transaction the need for radical change in the gender perceptions of teachers and teacher educators and linkages with and action required by other socializing agents, the parents the community the media.

Even though education of girls and women is considered as the key to all development it does not receive resource allocations commensurate with its importance. Studies on financing of girls education are needed for better resource allocations so that this area graduates from being a policy rhetoric to a planned implementation reality. All educational programmes claiming gender as a focus need careful study from this angle. A study of basic issues in the education of women and girls in the Asia and Pacific Region Commissioned by the UNESCO (Navar 1994) brings out clearly that female literacy is dependent on the social policies and ideological persuasions regarding the roles and status of women in a particular culture. Female literacy has been achieved in countries with extremely low levels of income but with strong distributive social policies on health, education, training and employment. That 'education for all' cannot be achieved without 'health for all' and 'work for all' needs to be internalized. As the poverty of nations affects women and girls most in gender discriminatory societies, the national and international commitment has to address the question of better redistribution of the global and the national GDP. Women's education is a function of women's equality, which will not come about by mere provision of rights but by the ability of women to use those rights. The study makes a strong appeal to national leadership and the international organizations to address themselves to the gender question more squarely, both in policy and

implementation as studies in the economics of education tell us that both private and social returns to women's education are greater than those for men at virtually every level and 'at most' equal to those for men (Poulous, 1985)

The women's studies scholars and educational researchers are to rise to the occasion through mutual interaction, feeding into the growth of both disciplines as well as all social sciences and pushing the advancement of women/humans further. The role of Comparative Education in identifying and clarifying issues of women's education and equality in societies like India in a state of permanent transition where tradition and modernity both exercise equal and opposite pulls at times, where tradition at times triggers modernization or gets modernized itself (Singer, 1976). In a heterogeneous country like India with a wide range of diverse cultural practices and traditions ranging from gender egalitarian matrilineal cultures to strongly patriarchal, patrilineal dominant groups intra country comparisons are as valid as international comparisons.

Action /Research

Sinha (1991) studied an action research intervention in the form of a girl child camp at Hyderabad by an NGO, the *Mamidi Pudi Venkatarangarva Foundation* and found that most of the girls were fully conscious of the better opportunities accorded for their brothers and said they could do all the work done by boys. Throughout the discussion the girls expressed their desire for learning. It was reflected that parents consider education a 'luxury' for girls, they will let them study only at night after all the tasks are finished. It was clearly obvious that for most of them the desire to study was very strong. The overwhelming response of the girls and the sparkle which the girls managed to generate proved to be an eye opener for NGOs. The specific focussing of attention on the girls led to greater sensitization on the issues of gender discrimination. The camp provided an opportunity to the girls to think about some issues and over a period of time may help the organisms to plan more meaningful programmes for the girls. Similar intervention have been found to be highly successful in Rajasthan, *Balika Shiksha (Girl Child Camps)* in the Lok Jumbish Project. A new star on the horizon is the *Doosra Dashak (The Second Decade)*, being piloted by *Sandhan*, Jaipur, Rajasthan to provide integrated education to out of school adolescents and youth in the age group 11-20 years with UNESCO assistance. A visit to *Roshni* an action project for giving integrated education to adolescent girls (largely Muslims) employed as piece wage labour in gem cutting and polishing in a congested locality of Jaipur is worth the effort. These girls have dreams. The greatest is to be able to breathe in open spaces without Purdah, without being admonished. They want to learn English to be able to understand the language of the market so that they can negotiate. Superb work is being done with girls and women in Ahmedabad by the NGO Chetana in the area of health and education. Excellent materials have been generated for education and training.

An Inter Country Innovative Pilot project on Universalisation of Primary Education Among Girls and Disadvantaged Children in rural Areas (Haryana) sponsored by UNESCO, does present a model for this task as operationalized by the Department of Women's Studies (DWS), NCERT during 1992-98. The project was conceptualised as a low cost feeder project to assist the State of Haryana in the universalisation of primary education achieving an equilateral triad of quantity, quality and equality. The massive enrolment drives carried out by the teachers of the state schools since early nineties

resulted in schools overflowing with children but lacking in the basic minimum physical infrastructure and above all facing acute shortage of teachers, thus putting an immense strain on state resources. The quantitative expansion having taken place, the major challenge was improving the quality of primary education keeping the equity-equality focus sharply in the forefront. During Phase One, the project aimed at sensitizing and orienting the educational administrators, the teacher educators and the teachers in Haryana to the issues concerning girls' education and women's empowerment through a multilevel integrated research based district and action programme. This project, therefore, attempted not only to sensitize key actors in UPE at the state, district, block

and village level but to help them bond into a group with a shared vision and common commitment. Need based local specific and research based training materials were generated bringing out the regional nuances especially with regard to the status of women. The concept of multilevel integrated training and action involving educators, administrators, teachers, the parents and the communities is a departure from conventional training strategies and approaches. Participatory Research and interaction with the educators, the parents, the community and the policy makers and IEC were the highlights of the methodology.

During Phase Two, need was felt to re-strategize in order to sharpen the quality focus without letting up on gender equality and equality for other disadvantaged children. In an evaluation study of DPEP Phase I in Haryana, it became evident that with increasing economic prosperity, the parents were sending their male wards to private fee levying schools that had mushroomed in rural areas. The government schools were now largely catering to girls and other children from the weaker sections of the population who were unable to afford private schooling for their children and were drawn to state schools on account of incentives like, free noon meal, free text books, free uniforms and attendance prizes for girls of Scheduled Caste Groups and nomadic tribes, among others. This is when these private institutions were running in small accommodation with relatively lower qualified teachers but were still producing near universal success in the State primary level board examinations with their students securing high percentage of marks. On the other hand, state schools had better accommodation, large school grounds and fully qualified teachers but short staffed on account of large influx of children, even under aged ones. The teachers were in dire need of reorientation and in service training. The DPEP had put in a large effort to upgrade the physical infrastructure and also inputs for enhancing teacher capabilities, classroom appearance and interaction, improved textbooks, gender training and environment building among others. It was therefore decided to move away from earlier project districts of Kaithal and Gurgaon which were now covered by the DPEP and also from District Faridabad which had shown good progress during the project period.

Keeping in view the limitation of resources and the time frame of six months at our disposal, it was decided that we should concentrate our efforts in a smaller geographic area and saturate it fully. A rural remote block, namely Khol in District Rewari was selected with the objective of promoting quality and equality between sexes and making learning a joyful experience. This was to be achieved by mobilising the teachers and the communities of the Block. A school based programme was launched in all 68

schools, covering 12000 teachers and 300 primary teachers of Khol Block in collaboration with the State Council of Educational Research and Training and the 59 Gram Panchayats in November, 1998. This has been a mutually rewarding and satisfying experience for the three partners i.e., the UNESCO, the NCERT and the SCERT, Haryana and has generated a low cost model for quality improvement in primary education and for promoting gender equality.

Five studies were carried out under the Joint Government of India – UN System of Education Programme known as SCOPE (Support for Community based Primary Education) on Educating adolescent girls through non – formal system in the states of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan , Uttar Pradesh, and in Delhi. These studies covered the Mahila Shikshan Kendra model in Bihar, the Mahila Samakhya in UP, Balika Shikshan Shivar and Mahila Shikshan Vihar of the Lok Jumbish Programme in Rajasthan and three rural and three urban initiatives in the states of Andhra Pradesh and Delhi. These studies were carried out by Anita Dighic (Bihar) , Geeta Menon (Uttar Pradesh) , Jaya Srivastava (Delhi) , Laxmi Krishnamurthy and Vandana Mahajan (Andhra Pradesh) and Sharada Jain (Rajasthan). The overall coordination of the study was done by Sharada Jain , Director, Sandhan research Centre , Jaipur

Mahila Shikshan Kendras of Bihar (MSK) The MSK or known as Women's Residential Education Centres evolved as a component of the Mahila Samakhya Programme of the Department of Education , MHRD, GOI. The main aim of the programme is to make quality education available in a period of 8 months to those illiterate and semi illiterate women and adolescent girls who have been deprived of formal educational opportunities up to a minimum of Class 5 , especially in areas with very low female literacy rates. The Bihar study covered four MSKs at DIET (district Chhatra) , Mana Ashram (district Sheikpura) , Ratu (district Ranchi) , Fakirana (district Bettiah) and brought out the functioning of these Kendras and how the students regarded such education through the strategy of individual interviews with the students, group interviews and in – depth case studies with the ten MSK students to ascertain the long – term impact of these Kendras on their lives. The major findings of the study are that i) the MSKs are making sincere efforts in preparing women and adolescent girls to join the mainstream education programme by providing them quality education up to Class V. The students are now provided the textbooks by the Bihar Education Programme that are in use in the government schools so that they can continue in Class VI in government schools. The Kendras are maintaining a careful balance between mainstream education and life skills appropriate to the local situations, ii) The girls and women are prepared for learning sewing , gardening, planting, cycling , creating in them self – confidence , hygiene , and vocational skills. They have also facilities for learning music and for games , iii) girls and women are encouraged to be aware of current events and women's right , iv), students are also involved in maintaining the Kendras, v) the MSKs focus on building the self – esteem and self – confidence of these young women , enabling them to explore their own lives, examine the status of women , and the cause of gender discrimination in society. They are opened up to discuss the societal norms and values that discriminate against them. Initially they feel shy , diffident and inarticulate. The MSKs provide a nurturing and caring environment that facilitate learning, skill programmes and various other activities and thus provide an ambience for a holistic development of their personalities. The kendras are also preparing a cadre of trained women who can work both within the project and with other education and development programmes. The adolescent girls and young women who complete the course become role models and effective spokespersons for women's education. The community respect them and a large number of community members like to send their daughters to be educated like these young women.

Shikshan Vihar and Balika Shikshan Shivar of Lok Jumbish (Rajasthan) Lok Jumbish , meaning peoples's movement , is a project for development of basic education in Rajasthan. The objective of the project is to achieve education for all through peoples's mobilisation and their participation. The Lok Jumbish project is an innovative educational initiative that views girls' education as a complex socio – cultural issue rather than a mere question of logistics. The Mahila Shikshan Vihar and Balika Shikshan Shivar are two programmes for adolescent girls of the Lok Jumbish programme. In these programmes the camp approach is used in bringing girls into the fold of education through programmes which suit their specific requirements. In these camps the younger girls are enrolled for a bridge course that facilitated them to integrate with the mainstream education in the Balika Shikshan Shivirs, the older girls found an opportunity to complete a minimum level of education and become eligible for employment in various programmes. Over 3000 girls have obtained a high level of primary education through these camps between 1997-99. Mahila Shikshan Vihar was started in May 1994 to educate girls , to bring a qualitative change in their lives , help them to change their self image and evolve into enlightened and empowered individuals. At the time of the study there were 84 girls in the camp of whom 24 girls appeared for class eight and were on their way to their homes / workplaces. The girls are acquiring skills like stitching, embroidery, driving , judo, participating in sports and games , as well as marketing and managing other jobs. The immediate and pressing issues such as interpersonal problems between the family members , especially the position and status of women in the family , are interwoven in the curriculum. Balika shikshan was started on a pilot basis as residential camps for girls in 1997. Thirteen camps of six months each were

running at the time of the study. As a result, the girls' enrolment has increased in the schools and NFE centres. A facilitating environment for girls' education is created in the villages which makes it possible to regularise and systematise the *Balika Shivar* as an alternate model of NFE for adolescent girls. Demand for education of girls has increased both among the girls and the parents. The camp approach which relieved the girls from their daily duties, sensitivity of the programme personnel, teachers, curriculum related to the needs of the girls, constant non-critical guidance of the teachers help the girls to learn faster and also in ensuring their enrolment and retention. The varying duration of the programmes and the multi-level teaching methodology allowing them to learn at their own pace without the pressures of performance or comparisons. A holistic approach to education which provided vocational skills, life skills and social awareness along with literacy had a demonstration effect on the community ushering an educational revolution – quietly, imperceptibly. Camps also helping the girls to see their problems in broader social context of patriarchy and adopt more proactive approaches in problem solving and in developing new self image through sharing of life and group activities in the camp. The women workers and teachers of these camps are playing an important role in motivating the girls and the mothers to come up as the most influential partner in decision-making regarding her daughter's education. Most of the girls who have passed class eight are working in the most difficult areas under the Lok Jumbish programme and they exude confidence in themselves, and their abilities and skills.

Mahila Samakhya (MS) Experiences in Uttar Pradesh: Life Lessons The Uttar Pradesh MS has run a successful alternative education programme for adolescent girls that has given them more choices, greater control over their lives, and greater potential for exercising their rights as citizens. The programme covers 10 districts in U.P. Its alternative learning centres include literacy camps, Balkendras (children's literacy centres), Kishori Kendras (study centres for teenage girls), Mahila Saksharta Kendras (women's literacy centres), and Mahila Shiksha Kendras (women's residential education centres). These kendras provide a supportive environment, and an alternative place of learning to children who could not go to school. The programme has been very flexible in educating the girls and women. These alternative education centres include literacy competency, preparation to take the class V exams, empowerment of women in the areas of health, hygiene, legal issues, and life skills.

The present study was carried out in two districts namely Gorakhpur and Sharanpur. Data was collected through structured schedules and focussed group discussions. Sixteen adolescent girls were identified for interviews. The main findings of the study are that most of the girls were found to be confident, articulate and outspoken. They were fully aware of the legal age for marriage in case of girls and boys. Majority of them have determined not to let their parents plan their consummation ceremonies till they are 18. Many girls stated that they have convinced their parents to enrol their younger sisters and brothers in the formal schools. Girls found changes in their lives after attending these centres. They were proud of their new literacy skills. Girls were very keen to learn additional vocational and non-conventional skills, which they feel should be part of the education programme. There is a need for better co-ordination with the formal school system to enable the girls (who have completed the primary level of education) to pass the formal class V examination. In both the districts the centres had very poor facilities in terms of space, building, furniture, toilets and drinking water. The villagers are supporting in mobilising little resources for improvement of infrastructure. Girls expressed their desire that they need more reading material. They felt that they have become the role models for other girls. Some parents were happy and proud that these girls are able to read and write. One of the girls expressed her desire to become the Zila Adhikari. There is a need of opening more centres.

Ankur and Katha: Towards Empowerment (Delhi study) Katha and Ankur are non government organisations working in the slums of Delhi and have been implementing educational programmes for adolescent girls for over ten years. The learner participants addressed by the programmes are from similar socio economic backgrounds. The Ankur programmes are more on empowering adolescent girls to struggle for her rights. Katha, on the other hand, working on empowering girls by mainstreaming them into the education system and equipping them with income generating skills. Both the organisations have carved out multiple paths to Education towards Empowerment. Some of the achievements of these organisations are: i) a learner-centered approach that gives affection and respect to the participants, ii) a community based programme that takes into account the environment of the learner, iii) the importance given to the issues of equity and gender, iv) the stress on creativity, confidence and critical thinking, v) the use of innovative methodology, vi) the importance given to training teachers, vii) the focus on developing life skills. Some girls coming to Katha have shown interest in persuading people in their neighbourhood to send their children to schools or to Katha Centre.

and also have shown the courage to take up social issues such as early marriage and also developed courage to talk about issues such as gender and interreligious relationship in mixed groups (of boys and girls) Katha has provided the space and opportunity for hundreds of girls to work towards a better life , where they can be more confident and productive individuals

In Andhra Pradesh the study examined six organisations namely Mahila, COVA, Ananda Bharthi, Deccan Development Society, MV Foundation, Mahila Samatha working for girls' education The first three are working in urban Hyderabad and the other three are in rural areas

Mahila was established in 1995 covering 65-70 slums pockets of Hyderabad and is working towards educating and empowering urban communities with emphasis on women and adolescent girls A strong education component for adolescent girls and increasing the socio economic self reliance of poor women (micro – credit enterprise) are the main programmes and activities of the organisation The organisation organise different programmes for girls in the age groups 6-9 years, 9-12 years , and 13 + years For the younger age group , a bridge course for one year is organised in the motivation centres, after which the girls are enrolled in the neighbourhood government schools. Those who do not enroll themselves in the formal school are prepared for class VII public exams held by A.P. Open school ad *Siyasat* (an influential Urdu daily , which conducts exams in Urdu medium) Girls in the older age group learn both literacy and some skills in embroidery , screen printing, henna application , and beauticians' course at the motivation centres Recently, computer literacy has also been started at one of the centres, and is very popular with the girls The thrift and credit groups, which mainly comprise women , have in some cases given loans to older girls to start their small enterprises The literacy programme curriculum contains critical thinking, questioning, the gender roles and encouraging a positive self – image The institution provides vocational training to girls and also arrange health awareness programmes for them Mahila links up these activities with government schemes and other institutions

Confederation of Voluntary Agencies (COVA) COVA was established in 1994 and consists of over 100 community based groups , Voluntary Associations , NGOs and institutions working mainly in Hyderabad and neighbouring districts The institution is working in 80 slums of city of Hyderabad primarily inhabited by Muslim population The organisation work with adolescent girls focuses on literacy, health and vocational training. Literacy programme covers three level of programmes i) non – formal education for girls who have dropped out of school after completing class IV or V These girls are coached to complete Class X ii) centres for the promotion of Urdu literacy where girls are prepared for examination conducted by *Siyasat* , a popular Urdu daily iii) non – formal education through the AP Open School programme to prepare girls for class VII exams run by the AP Open school

Ananda Bharthi Ananda Bharthi organisation is working since 1989 for the girls who are working as domestic helpers and for education of adolescent girls in the age group 6- 15 years to complete upper – primary level education The girls are also given vocational training in areas such as tailoring embroidery, and knitting The institution promotes among the students reading habits by building a library of books on folk stories music, science craft, and drama , organise exposure visits to the local post office banks, museum etc , science experiments and practicals , celebrating local and seasonal festivals and sports day

Deccan Development Society (DDS) DDS has been working since 1986 towards organising and mobilising women at the village level The DDS is covering issues like creating household food security, alternative public distribution system (community grain fund) , environmental conservation and upgradation In addition , DDS is working for women's education and empowerment , networking and advocacy at the national and international level , women's rights and linking up with the women's groups for the elimination of bonded labour The institution runs a bridge course and camps for those adolescent girls who have been victims of family violence, marriage problems and destitution These girls are provided educational opportunities , legal aid, and vocational training to help them become self – reliant and confident Most of these girls who are of school going age are sent to the Green School and older girls are sent to the educational camps where they attend the bridge course to prepare for Class V and VII exams Later they are admitted to the AP residential schools Educational initiatives are consciously linked to the activities and responsibilities of women's collectives Courses in herbal medicine and pottery are taught by the sangha women

The Education Camps and Mahila Shikshan Kendra of MV Foundation (MVF) MVF started Mahila Shikshan Kendra , the first of its kind in 1992. The institution enroll girls who are in difficult situations in the age group 11-18 years for a 3-5 year term to complete basic education (V standard onwards). These girls are either put in the mainstream residential schools for higher education or go bak home equipped with literacy , life skills and economically self – sustaining options. The curriculum is so designed as to question the women's role and status and evolve strategies for self development with a stronger gender perspective.

Mahila Shikshan Kendras (MSKs) of A.P. Mahila Samatha Society (APMSS) Educating for Empowerment. The first MSK was started in 1995 and presently APMSS is running 3 MSKs and another one is in collaboration with the state government. These MSKs are running one year residential educational programmes for the girls in the age group 12 years and above. In addition the teaching classes are organised to prepare girls for Classes VI,VIII and intermediate exams and also organise programmes in areas of health, environment, and political process and women's rights. Girls are given training in certain vocational skills such as tailoring, raising plant nurseries, and handpumps repair in the MSKs. The institution is also running creative education awareness programme for younger non – school going children.

Chapter VI

The Future Beckons

The present study was taken up to review the development of female education in India since independence. Education of girls and women has been a premier policy concern and has received considerable attention as a part of socio economic planning expected to balance growth with justice. We have taken note of the Constitutional and legal provisions for women's education and development, the efforts made by the State, the planning initiatives and the strategies which have yielded favourable results and have also taken note of the progress made during the last fifty years especially during the 1990s. Much has been achieved considering not even one in a hundred females in the population were found literate in 1901. At 2001 Census count, 52% of female population aged 7+ was literate and female literacy and girls' education grew at a faster pace compared to their male counterparts during the 1990s. Girls now form 44% of the students enrolled at the primary stage, 40% at the middle stage, 39% at the secondary stage and 40% in higher education. In higher education, girls form 35 to 45% of the students enrolled in different streams except in engineering and technology courses.

The urban middle class girls are tough contenders for their male counterparts but a vast majority of rural girls, and those belonging to educationally backward minorities and urban sections, remain outside the fold of education due to poor access and low utilization. Given equal opportunity, girls do as well as boys, even better. As the secondary school board results are showing each year, girls tend to perform better than boys both in terms of pass percentage and now even in merit positions and grades. This continued good performance of girls has adequately established the fact that given equal access and opportunities, girls do as well as boys and even better. It would be pertinent to note that the girls who get as far as the secondary and higher secondary stages belong largely to urban middle class or are from among the better off rural populations. Gender, caste and class appear to be the deciding factors for access and success in education. The Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002) puts a premium on education of girls and women's empowerment as core factors for national development and the Tenth Five Year Plan is on the anvil. Below we briefly recount the efforts, the inputs, the results, the issues that remain and the future thrusts.

Planning Initiatives and Strategies

- ♦ Setting up of commissions and committees on education and more particularly on the education of women and girls – recommendations form the basis for further policy formulation and planning and management of programmes and schemes prominent being Durga Bai Deshmukh Committee on Women's education (1958-59), Bhaktavatsalam Committee (1963), Hansa Mehta Committee (1962-64), The Committee on Status of Women in India (1971).
- ♦ Education of girls and women in the Five Year Plans – the thrusts, the programmes, the processes, the schemes, the allocations, the structures.
- ♦ Conceptual shifts and modification of approaches – from macro centralized to decentralized, disaggregated micro, people based planning and management, from human capital to human resource development to human development, from gender neutral to the Girl Child focus and women's empowerment as the central organizing principle.
- ♦ Policy research and research based educational planning, researches influenced by the NPE 1986 (revised in 1992) and by perspectives from women's movement and women's studies.
- ♦ EFA initiatives with strong gender focus: TLC, Bihar Education Project, *Lok Jumbish*, *Shiksha Karmi*, District Primary Education Programme, *Mahila Samakhya* among others. These innovative projects with innovative structures, are process oriented and people centred, an attempt at decentralized community based planning and implementation.

- Higher financial outlays on primary education and additionally, international funding
- Strong advocacy for the girl child- demand generation Impact of TLC, ECCE(ICDS Anganwadis), Mahila Samakhya, , Integrated Women's development Project, Haryana, and similar awareness generation and empowerment projects of several ministries of the government of India and a large number of voluntary agencies
- Special measures for children of the disadvantaged groups to include, free uniforms, free textbooks, pre matric and post matric stipends and residential schools and hostels Additional incentives like free noon meal in all primary schools and free textbooks in DPEP for all children in primary classes and free education for girls upto higher secondary and even in higher education in several states
- Alternative schooling and other innovations to educate girls and empower women - NFE, Junior/part schools, *Shishu Kendras*, Education Guarantee Scheme in Madhya Pradesh,, *Mahila Shikshan Kendras*, *Balika Shiksha*, *Sahaj Pathshala*, *Prehar Pathshala*, , *Saraswati Yojana* , stipends to girls for schooling under the Haryana IWDEP, *Jagriti* centres of Mahila Samakhya , Bihar, among others
- Role of women's movement and women's studies - , NGOs, UN Agencies and other international funding agencies
- Gender sensitization and orientation of educational personnel
- Mobilisation of women and the communities
- Gender Equality through Curriculum- Elimination of gender bias from textbooks and preparation of handbooks, resource materials and exemplar materials
- ♦ Women's Empowerment Year 2001

Outcomes

- Breakthrough in literacy female literacy has increased at a faster pace, among them rural females have progressed, also, educationally backward states have shown improvement, maximum improvement among the seven North Eastern states
- Improved access at the primary stage
- Enhanced educational participation among girls, faster growth
- Reduced dropout , better retention among girls
- Closing in of gender gaps in enrolment, retention and achievement , more notable in EFA projects with girl child focus
- Development of a positive self image and self confidence in girls as also higher educational and occupational aspirations
- A positive climate and acceptance of the need for educating girls by the parents, the communities
- Better sensitized teachers, teacher educators and the bureaucracy
- Adoption of a large number of pro girl child schemes and programmes by the Central and state governments

- Entry of girls into non conventional courses, how so ever, limited
- Better presentation of women's roles and contribution to society
- Mobilisation and empowerment of women and communities

Issues that remain

Literacy and skill deficits of women

- ♦ Female literacy has just crossed the half way mark. In 2001, 54% females aged 7+ were found literate compared to 76% males. The number female literates has gone up from 129.5 million in 1991 to 225 million in 2001 and the number of illiterates has come down from 200 million to 189.6 million, a decline of 10.5 million during this period. Urban female literacy rate is double of the rural female literacy rate and SC and ST women are at the bottom of the heap.
- ♦ The skill deficits of rural women are huge on account of lower literacy and extremely poor access to secondary /higher secondary education. Ten to twelve years of schooling is the entry requirement for second and third level technical and professional education. There is poor availability of technical and professional training opportunities in rural areas. Rural female productivity is not only poor but often negative due to low skill formation, poor health and nutrition, unemployment and under employment. Unless we wake up, rural females have little chance of surviving in the new machavellian economic order which is more capital and technology intensive and less labour intensive. And, further, it is based on principles of ruthless competition, high lay offs, 'you prove or perish' – Social Darwinism has little space for the illiterate, the unskilled, the poor, the handicapped.
- ♦ India's performance on the Human Development is not very encouraging being placed at the 128th rank (value 0.563) on Human Development Index (HDI), 108th rank on Gender Development Index (Human Development Report, 2000) and 95th rank on the Gender Empowerment Measure (Human Development Report, 1999). While Japan had 10 years of per capita education in 1950, in India, the mean years of schooling are 2.4 years for the population as a whole, the average years per capita being 3.5 years for males and 1.2 years for females (Human Development in South Asia, 1998).
- ♦ Five decades away from the adoption of the Constitution, we are still unable to fulfil the Constitutional Directive of Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE). Rural urban disparities grow wider with every successive higher level of education in terms of access and enrolments.

Post primary education for girls from rural/ remote areas

- Accessing post primary education to girls in rural remote areas and from disadvantaged groups. There is acute shortage of middle and secondary/higher secondary schools in rural areas. Inter state disparities are very prominent (See Appendix Table). Girls do not cross village boundaries ordinarily. The 3 Km radial distances for a middle school is forbidding at times due to terrain or reasons of personal safety. Lack of weather motorable roads to all villages.
- ♦ There has been large scale expansion of the educational system since independence. The number of primary schools since the First Five Year Plan have increased more than three times. However, the middle schools have multiplied fourteen times and the high / higher secondary schools have increased sixteen fold. For every 100 primary schools there are only 30 middle / upper primary schools, 13 high schools and less than 5 higher secondary schools. The access ratio in many states is 1:10 or even more. Even in state like Tamil Nadu there are only 18 middle schools for 100 primary schools (MHRD, 1999-2000).

all results in non-achievement of targets in terms of both quality and quantity which terms vocational education as a "failed venture", especially for girls

- ♦ At the secondary level participation of girls is affected in Science and Maths courses because of lack of facilities in girl's schools for Science and Maths teaching. Shortage of science teachers also poses a big barrier. Lack of adequate foundation in Science and Mathematics also keep girls away from non traditional courses related to technology, Para-medical, business, commerce and agriculture
- ♦ Gender stereotyping of curricular offerings continues especially in technical education on account of the limited gender role perceptions of administrators and even parents and the future employers. There is, thus, still need for gender sensitisation of the educational personnel, the communities and the public at large

Participation of SC, ST, OBC girls

- Enrolment of SC, ST, OBC girls at the primary level is somewhat satisfactory but their retention is not despite a large number of special schemes and programmes for them. Management of these schemes is far from satisfactory

Education of Muslim Girls

- Problem of girls belonging to educationally and economically backward minority, the Muslims, is riddled with issues of poverty, sex segregation, purdah, demand for single sex schools, teaching of Urdu regardless of the regional affiliation, be it in Kerala or Tamil Nadu or Assam or Kashmir, anywhere. Across board, our field studies show a persistent demand for teaching of Urdu as an additional language and not necessarily as medium of instruction. even though functionally all children study through regional and even international languages to move on to higher general and technical education

Education of Out of School Girls in the Age Group (10-18 years)

- ♦ There is a huge mass of out of school population, majority being girls. These include drop outs and never enrolled children in the age group 6-14 years who are receiving attention under the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan which emphasizes accessing quality elementary education to all children in this age group by 2010. We are ignoring at our peril the out of school age group 14-18 years. Barring the NGO initiative on a limited scale, there is no concrete programme for bringing these youth back to education for them responsible and productive citizens. Even the present open learning systems are not catering to them for elementary education. Left unattended, they take recourse to nihilistic activities, be it indolence, drugs, or armed violence
- ♦ Girls form 89 % of the estimated 12.4 million out of school children in the age group 6-11 years, and 58 % of the 28 million non enrolled children in the age group 11-14 years. Add to this several million girls in the age group 14 to 18 who have either never been to school or have incomplete schooling.

Shortage of Women Teachers in Rural areas

- ♦ Shortage of women teachers in rural areas is a major barrier to girls' education in rural areas and in some communities especially at the upper primary and the secondary stages. And, this has backward linkages with low availability of post primary/ secondary education facilities for rural girls who do not fulfil the essential entry requirement into teacher training courses. Only three out of hundred rural girls enrolled in Class I are likely to make it to Class XII compared to twenty three in urban areas. In several previous plans, mention is made for schemes for preparing women teachers for rural areas. In the Second Plan (1961-66), the shortage of women teachers was seen as an impediment. Towards this the emphasis was on providing housing facilities to women teachers in villages, states were given assistance for providing free accommodation for teachers in rural areas, stipends for women for teacher training courses, stipends for high school students to take up teaching, and for construction of

hostels for secondary schools for girls. In the Third Plan special emphasis was laid on increasing the number of women teachers from rural areas who could take up teaching and inducing women from urban areas to accept posts as teachers in rural schools. In order to overcome the inadequate supply of science women teachers, it was proposed to select promising students at the post matriculation stage and assist them with scholarships and stipends through the entire period of training. Promising female students at the post secondary stage were to be assisted with scholarships and stipends to train as teachers. The Sixth Plan envisaged making vigorous efforts to appoint women teachers in primary schools in the nine educationally backward states. During the Ninth Plan special mention was to appoint additional teachers both at the primary and upper primary stage of whom 50 % will be women. Despite all these efforts the rural areas are still facing acute shortage of women teachers at all levels of school education.

Administrative Issue

- No worthwhile co-ordinating mechanisms for planning and monitoring of women's education. Policy performance gaps persist for lackadaisical partial implementation of schemes, programmes, largely sectoral, segmented and truncated approach. No holistic approach. No organic linkages among and between levels, concerned departments and desks within departments.
- Lack of inter sectoral convergence Education- health – nutrition of children and adolescents
- Lack of functional relationship of education department with the Panchayat Raj institutions
- Lack of gender statistics in several areas, no gender break up of schemes for the SC and ST, for ECCE, ICDS, for that matter in data on reservations of seats and jobs for SC, ST and OBC
- Lack of regular inflow of rural urban statistics, absence of data in case of educationally backward minorities. Rural urban data is available only at long intervals. There is no national management information system for women in vocational and technical education as well as in professional employment
- Low participation of communities and women's groups

Proposed Interventions

The last ten years have witnessed intense EPA activities with a strong rural and gender focus, additional outlays for primary education, innovative child / people centred projects and community mobilization. The National policies are designed to reach out to the rural and remote areas and education of rural girls and women. The continued under development of rural areas, lack of roads, communication, transport facilities continues to hinder rural female education. And, the burgeoning slum population in Metropolitan areas remains unserved by the urban authorities as far as any basic amenities are concerned leave alone schools. Much has happened and yet much remains to be done to reach out to the last girl, the last woman in the country.

- Draw up a carefully designed national plan of action with clear time frame, allocation of resources and assigning definite responsibility to concerned government agencies and involving NGOs
- Make all weather motor able roads to all villages as a first charge and provide free school bus service to all elementary school children(Classes I-VIII) and to girls up to the higher secondary level. The trade off between expenditure on building additional classrooms/ motor able roads and the large array of the existing incentive schemes needs to be studied.

- Junior/Part/alternative schooling in small unserved habitations, Upgrade all primary schools to middle schools. Girls do not cross village boundary ordinarily. The 3 Km radial distances for a middle school is forbidding at times due to terrain or reasons of personal safety. Moreover, we have to be practical. If all the feeder primary schools are able to retain all entrants in Class I and nearly all of them pass out of Class V, the present serving middle school can by no means take in all primary school graduates. Further, there is enough evidence that girls continue on to higher classes wherever there are complete middle/secondary or higher secondary schools within the village.
- Girl's primary level boarding schools/ashrams *alas* are needed in extreme circumstances like scattered populations in forests, deserts, mountains, for instance. Successful experiments of Madhya Pradesh TWD blocks and Lok Zumbish need to be studied before taking any major policy decision. Girl's primary level boarding schools/ashrams *alas* are needed in extreme circumstances like scattered populations in forests, deserts, mountains, for instance. Successful experiments of Madhya Pradesh TWD blocks and Lok Zumbish need to be studied before taking any major policy decision.
- Need to move to block based holistic inter sectoral approach to education and training of girls and women. It is of prime importance to open exclusive Balika Vidya Peeths in every block with provision for general and vocational education up to Class XII with residential facilities for all girls of the villages which do not have a middle or a high school. Vocational courses could include modern trades and among others elementary teacher's training, training as para health workers, Anganwadi workers, pre school teachers, Gram Sevikas etc. One girls' hostel attached to a higher secondary school in each block to accommodate at least 200 girls from Class VI onwards.
- Distance education potential is immense and needs to be tapped for educating girls living in difficult areas and the large out of school girls population. No fee to be charged from girls entering distance education courses.
- Let us not put the problem of education of Muslim girls under the mat. Census needs to give us figures about their single year age wise enrolments/participation rates for developing special strategies at par with other educationally and economically disadvantaged groups. Action Plans for education and health requirements of women and girls need to be developed and operationalized in blocks with heavy concentration of Muslim populations.
- Shortage of women teachers poses a major barrier for girls schooling in rural areas. Four year residential courses for middle pass rural girls be designed to prepare women teachers for the elementary stage in all three streams (Languages, science and mathematics, social sciences) with pedagogical inputs. Some states are offering Elementary Teacher's training as part of the Vocational Courses being offered in school for general education at the higher secondary stage. A scheme of scholarships/ bursaries/ residential courses needs to be developed for meeting the shortage of women teachers in rural areas.
- Schemes like Apni Bet Apna Dhan (Haryana), Rajyalakshmi and Sarawati Yojana of Rajasthan and similar other attempts to secure the fundamental right to life need to be strengthened and linked to education for long term effects.
- The revised POA recommendation for setting up of women's/ girls education cells/bureaus in MHRD/Planning Commission/ National agencies and an inter ministerial/ inter departmental steering/monitoring group has not been operationalised. We need to do this at the earliest forthwith.
- We need a strong cell/bureau in the Department of Education, MHRD and corresponding structures in the states/UTs to look at the problems of girls from rural areas, educationally backward minorities and other disadvantaged groups, with state counterparts. Standing Committee on Girls Education of MHRD has never met so far. This should be activated. Specifically, to evolve coherent training policies and programmes for women need to be pursued. Further there is no coordinating mechanism for looking at the programmes of general, technical and skill development for women under a

multiplicity of agencies and departments The National Council for Women's Education which was functioning till 1974 needs to be revived and made a hub for holistic planning of education and training of women and girls to include vocational, technical and professional training

- Inter departmental coordination and convergence of efforts is direly needed even among the departments of MHRD itself The formulations of the DWCD on education of girls and women's empowerment are far more potent and comprehensive compared to those of the department of education in th Ninth Plan Document Education- health – nutrition of children and adolescents needs inter sect oral convergence
- Need to develop functional relationship by education department with the Panchayat Raj institutions Wherever, Panchayats are even partially functional (even when lacking the teeth of funds) and have owned up their school, things have improved for children's education in general and for girls in particular Greater cooperation and participation of PRIs is needed
- Articulation and organisation of village women around issues of daily survival include their concern for education of their sons and daughters Mahila mandals / samoochs need to be strengthened and revived as a major plank of rural development and women's empowerment
- Expanded programme of formal and non-formal vocational training for rural girls in health, employment etc Transition rates for rural girls need to be improvement both at muddle and secondary level
- A national programme of strengthening science and mathematics teaching in all girls school along with a scheme of meet shortage of science and mathematics teachers in girls school Special focus is to improve access of girls to secondary and technical education in rural areas
- Studies are needed on impact of incentives, institutional structures/ delivery systems to include EFA projects, open learning and alternative schooling
- Effective strategy to reduce huge illiteracy of women to include provision of 8-10 years of general education
- Expanded programme of formal and non-formal vocational training for rural girls in health, employment etc Transition rates for rural girls need to be improvement both at muddle and secondary level
- A national programme of strengthening Science and Mathematics teaching in all girls school along with a scheme of meet shortage of science and mathematics teachers in girl's school Special focus is needed to improve access of girls to secondary and technical education in rural areas
- Encourage participation of girls in non-traditional courses for there is need to provide adequate hostel facilities for girls to studying technical and management institutions
- Provision of guidance and counselling services for girls also needs to be specially catered to
- Creating public awareness and acceptance of women in work roles Create support structures foe working women in the area of domestic services and child care in particular
- Adopt totally non restrictive policies while opening courses More courses leading to self employment.
- Rural poverty and lack of employment opportunities in rural areas need direct and indirect interventions both There is need to improve the out reach of basic services of education, health, housing, sanitation and communication to rural areas A conscious effort needs to be made to generate employment and higher productivity through application of science and technology and

setting up of rural industries and rural service as also relevant technical training institutions and programmes in rural areas

- As the case studies show, urbanization and more importantly industrialization gives rise to demand for literates qualified, skilled workers, technicians and professionals and additional services like banking, insurance, management training etc. Women tend to benefit to the extent which the cultures are gender egalitarian and permit them to cross the gender lines in occupations. Political will and State policies determine implementation of national policies.
- Wherever, Panchayats are even partially functional (even when lacking the teeth of funds) and have owned up their school, things have improved for children's education in general and for girls in particular. Greater cooperation and participation of PRIs is needed.
- Articulation and organisation of village women around issues of daily survival include their concern for education of their sons and daughters. Mahila mandals / samooths need to be strengthened and revived as a major plank of rural development and women's empowerment.
- ♦ Expanded programme of formal and non-formal vocational training for rural girls in health, employment etc. Transition rates for rural girls need to be improved both at middle and secondary level.
- ♦ A national programme of strengthening Science and Maths teaching in all girls' school along with a scheme to meet shortage of science and maths teachers in girls' school. Special focus is to improve access of girls to secondary and technical education in rural areas.
- Studies are needed on impact of incentives, institutional structures/ delivery systems to include EFA projects, open learning and alternative schooling.
- Need to match policies with commensurate resources allocations, appropriate institutional structure and expertise.
- Need for regular inflow of rural urban statistics.
- Need for adequate MIS on women education and training and gender sensitive planning and gender inclusive curriculum.

The implementation of the Ninth Plan provisions for education of girls and women's empowerment need to be reviewed urgently. The Prime Minister's Special Action plan has identified expansion and improvement of educational /social infrastructure as a critical area and women's empowerment as one of the nine primary objectives of the Ninth Plan. To this effect several strategies were proposed to ensure easy and equal access to women and girls for eradication of illiteracy; to eliminate gender bias in all educational programmes, appoint additional teachers at primary and upper primary level, women to form at least 50% of these, to reduce drop out of girls and to increase their retention through incentives, improved quality of education, distance education and self study programmes, to expand and diversify existing second level vocational and technical education especially in non traditional and emerging areas, to institute plans for free education of girls up to college level, including professional courses, special package for girl child from poverty groups announced on 15 August, 1997, special attention to low female literacy pockets, SC,ST, OBC, Minorities, disabled, working children and children from deserts, hilly area, coastal areas, deep forests, children of migratory populations, and hostels for girls at the secondary stage in remote areas, among others. It is perhaps necessary to point out that contours and implementation of free education for all girls and the special package for the girl child for instance are not very clear. We need to concentrate on the education of rural girls and women or may we say adopt a **RURAL SHE APPROACH** to all development. The following national programmes need to be worked out:

1. **Rural Girls Education Fellowship Programme** – a five year programme to help rural primary school girl graduates complete ten years of general education, a two year fellowship for completing two years of general and technical Plus Two level education.

- II **Rural Women Teachers Fellowship Programme for primary and secondary levels**
- III **Strengthening of teaching of Science and Maths in Rural (Girls) schools.**
- IV **An integrated programme for education ,training and development of the out of school girls and young women (10-35 years) both rural and urban including health and legal awareness and income generating inputs**
- V **Balika Vidya Pecths in each block with provision for general and vocational education up to Class XII with residential facilities for at least 200 girls from villages without a middle or a high/ higher secondary school**
- VI **At least one rural degree college with vocational and general education courses for girl in every district; reservation of seats for rural girls in college hostels**

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Appendix Tables

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**Table 1: Number of Middle , High / Higher Secondary Schools Per 100 Primary Schools
1999-2000***

SL No	States / UTs	Number of Schools 1999-2000*			Middle Schools per 100 Primary Schools	High / Hr Sec/ Jr./Inter Pre degree colleges per 100 Primary Schools
		Primary	Middle	High / Hr Sec./ Jr./Int/ Pre degree colleges		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Andhra Pradesh	55398	9530	11908	17	21
2	Arunachal Pradesh	1289	328	176	25	14
3	Assam	33236	8019	4651	24	14
4	Bihar*	53697	13761	4910	26	9
5	Goa	1046	91	436	9	42
6	Gujarat*	14789	20044	6177	136	42
7	Haryana	10560	1786	3952	17	37
8	Himachal Pradesh	10472	1484	1563	14	15
9	J & K.@	10483	3104	1351	30	13
10	Karnataka*	23690	24142	10073	102	43
11	Kerala	6748	2966	3120	44	46
12	Madhya Pradesh	91733	23340	9277	25	10
13	Maharashtra	42108	23686	14585	56	35
14	Manipur	2572	730	605	28	24
15	Meghalaya	4685	1041	572	22	12
16	Mizoram	1226	749	372	61	30
17	Nagaland	1469	473	328	32	22
18	Orissa	42104	12096	7125	29	17
19	Punjab	12996	2534	3357	19	26
20	Rajasthan	34948	16336	6047	47	17
21	Sikkim	501	129	110	26	22
22	Tamil Nadu	31052	5640	7843	18	25
23	Tripura	2068	421	607	20	29
24	Uttar Pradesh	96964	21678	8549	22	9
25	West Bengal	52385	3019	7233	6	14
26	A. & N Islands	198	55	87	28	44
27	Chandigarh	46	34	105	74	228
28	D & N Haveli	138	57	20	41	14
29	Daman & Diu	53	22	25	42	47
30	Delhi*	2676	601	1459	22	55
31	Lakshadweep	19	4	13	21	68
32	Pondicherry	346	105	184	30	53
	India	641695	198004	116820	31	18

Source, Annual Report, 2000-2001, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI.

Note

- Provisional figures
- Pertains to 1998-99 except Gujarat High / Hr. Sec. Schools

@ pertains to 1997-98

Table 2 : State wise number of schools by area – 1993

SL. No	States/ UTs	% Rural pop. in 1991	Primary Schools		Middle Schools		High Schools		Hr Sec. Schools	
			Total	% Rural	Total	% Rural	Total	% Rural	Total	% Rural
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Andhra Pradesh	73.1	49141	90	6381	74	6959	68	1292	40
2.	Arunachal Pradesh	87.2	1146	97	277	94	79	91	61	77
3	Assam	88.9	28890	95	6943	93	2912	86	597	73
4	Bihar	86.9	52823	94	13706	85	4039	79	500	49
5	Goa	59.0	1028	80	118	78	331	61	58	50
6	Gujarat	65.5	13582	89	18615	78	3768	78	1835	42
7	Haryana	75.4	5206	90	1479	85	2175	77	536	47
8	Himachal Pradesh	91.3	7721	97	1108	95	1025	89	241	69
9	Jammu & Kashmir	-	8743	93	2542	83	1041	79	240	48
10	Karnataka	69.1	21956	92	18283	74	4980	65	1276	55
11	Kerala	73.6	5919	80	3704	77	2186	74	295	69
12	Madhya Pradesh	76.8	72225	89	16101	72	2671	63	2913	46
13	Maharashtra	61.3	39949	87	20216	80	9837	66	2372	55
14	Manipur	72.5	3031	85	702	79	471	67	36	39
15	Meghalaya	81.4	4099	96	820	91	409	71	9	44
16	Mizoram	53.9	943	70	608	69	253	55	0	0
17	Nagaland	82.8	1225	96	385	83	184	67	4	0
18.	Orissa	86.6	36306	94	10259	93	5310	88	383	79
19	Punjab	70.5	12739	91	1370	89	2154	80	744	49
20	Rajasthan	77.1	33349	87	10176	75	3330	79	1204	38
21	Sikkim	90.9	524	10	118	100	66	98	23	91
22	Tamil Nadu	65.9	30085	88	5709	76	3385	69	2250	45
23.	Tripura	84.7	2029	96	434	92	337	91	152	63
24.	Uttar Pradesh	80.2	86539	86	19114	79	2533	73	4311	57
25	West Bengal	72.5	48357	83	2863	81	4587	69	1265	48
	Union Territories									
26	A & N Islands	73.3	188	96	44	86	31	81	41	76
27	Chandigarh	10.3	42	33	29	14	68	15	43	5
28	D & N Haveli	91.5	125	98	42	90	8	88	7	71
29	Daman & Diu	53.2	30	83	25	64	28	54	3	0
30	Delhi	10.1	1968	15	506	12	311	12	925	10
31	Lakshadweep	43.7	12	58	11	55	8	63	4	25
32.	Pondicherry	36.0	335	55	117	44	88	34	42	31
	India	74.3	570455	89	162805	79	65564	73	23662	49

Source Sixth All India Educational Survey, National Tables Vol. II, NCERT, 1998

Table - 3 ;

Enrolment by Stages -1999-2000

SL. No	States / UTs	Primary / Jr Basic (Classes I-V)			Middle / Upper Pry. (Classes VI-VIII)		
		Total	Girls	% Girls	Total	Girls	% Girls
1	Andhra Pradesh	9112061	4409365	48.39	2681706	1174991	43.82
2	Arunachal Pradesh	158682	71644	45.15	51582	23338	45.24
3	Assam	4005779	1807760	45.13	1483164	643030	43.36
4	Bihar	10473252	3956475	37.78	2548580	808939	31.74
5	Goa	122345	59482	48.62	72196	33680	46.65
6	Gujarat	6146281	2656553	43.22	2153850	907165	42.12
7	Haryana	2081380	982477	47.20	905247	398976	44.07
8	Himachal Pradesh	665538	322493	48.46	360189	168331	46.73
9	J & K.	893005	373809	41.86	405698	151966	37.46
10	Karnataka	6501200	3106190	47.78	2417210	1098520	45.45
11	Kerala	2561000	1248237	48.74	1788772	859844	48.07
12	Madhya Pradesh	11455935	4996763	43.62	3600221	1341093	37.25
13	Maharashtra	12075501	5801085	48.04	5487080	2403777	43.81
14	Manipur	270092	128499	47.58	119263	56361	47.26
15	Meghalaya	319728	159651	49.93	91540	47330	51.70
16	Mizoram	124933	59138	47.34	46482	22850	49.16
17	Nagaland	171952	82511	47.98	62842	30572	48.65
18	Orissa	4615000	1910000	41.39	1429000	556000	38.91
19	Punjab	2137483	1012335	47.36	996196	468970	47.08
20	Rajasthan	7917364	2831257	35.76	3255562	936582	28.77
21	Sikkim	87511	42930	49.06	25793	13021	50.48
22	Tamil Nadu	6083110	2914202	47.91	3343468	1603289	47.95
23	Tripura	470271	221891	47.18	154365	71108	46.06
24	Uttar Pradesh	14106511	5192662	36.81	4913024	1539963	31.34
25	West Bengal	9469320	4408129	46.55	2906246	1225891	42.18
26	A. & N Islands	39977	19154	47.91	22384	10526	47.02
27	Chandigarh	66540	30737	46.19	38386	17969	46.81
28	D & N Haveli	27068	11725	43.32	7535	2898	38.46
29	Daman & Diu	15860	7519	47.41	6952	3248	46.72
30	Delhi	1324426	630556	47.61	623135	330423	53.03
31	Lakshadweep	8323	3795	45.60	4444	2076	46.71
32	Pondicherry	104113	50028	48.05	63086	30120	47.74
	India	113612541	49509252	43.58	42065198	16982847	40.37

Source, Annual Report, 2000-2001, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

Table - 4;

Enrolment by Stages -1999-2000

SL. No.	States / UTs	Sec. / Hr Sec / Pre Degree			Higher Education		
		Total	Girls	% Girls	Total	Girls	% Girls
1	Andhra Pradesh	20001481	804679	40.20	580301	209168	36.04
2	Arunachal Pradesh	30693	12117	39.48	4374	1245	28.46
3	Assam	882441	338980	40.68	200346	67842	33.86
4	Bihar	1492787	383287	25.68	688095	126038	18.32
5	Goa	59906	29357	49.01	16226	9687	59.70
6	Gujarat	1486409	621198	41.79	398671	182148	45.69
7	Haryana	747443	299372	40.05	166750	70990	42.57
8	Himachal Pradesh	283450	125045	44.12	75268	30841	40.97
9	J & K.	227705	83349	36.60	48226	18104	37.54
10	Karnataka	1920087	835361	43.51	929617	487731	52.47
11	Kerala	1327123	693123	52.23	263568	164039	62.24
12	Madhya Pradesh	2051054	677322	33.02	302274	116198	38.44
13	Maharashtra	3587818	1306601	41.99	944114	356067	37.71
14	Manipur	75881	35401	46.65	27641	13051	47.22
15	Meghalaya	51582	24409	47.32	14862	7030	47.30
16	Mizoram	33614	16621	49.45	8132	3428	42.15
17	Nagaland	38222	17654	46.19	7502	3210	42.79
18	Orissa	1113500	388800	34.92	160707	40162	24.99
19	Punjab	828817	374527	45.19	185672	99008	53.32
20	Rajasthan	1155857	320013	27.69	225873	78268	34.65
21	Sikkim	12580	5886	46.79	2212	862	38.97
22	Tamil Nadu	2251187	1075200	47.76	414176	203690	49.18
23	Tripura	97949	42295	43.18	19273	7590	39.38
24	Uttar Pradesh	3334639	885712	26.56	1170710	398582	34.05
25	West Bengal	1698591	598550	35.24	569666	233801	41.04
26	A. & N Islands	15880	7645	48.14	1869	972	52.01
27	Chandigarh	37276	18295	49.08	24354	13811	56.71
28	D & N Haveli	3645	1487	40.80	0	0	0
29	Daman & Diu	5317	2261	42.52	670	310	46.27
30	Delhi	1312710	700068	53.33	267798	131815	49.22
31	Lakshadweep	3014	1352	44.86	0	0	0
32	Pondicherry	45799	22194	48.46	11853	6303	53.18
	India	28214457	10968161	38.87	7730800	3081991	39.87

Source, Annual Report, 2000-2001, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

Table -5: Enrolment Ratio in Classes I-V and VI-VIII of Schools for General Education-1999-2000

SL. No.	States / UTs	Classes I-V (6-11 Yrs.)			Classes VI-VIII (11-14 Yrs)		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	Andhra Pradesh	105.21	101.39	103.32	52.30	42.77	47.65
2	Arunachal Pradesh	126.14	108.55	117.54	72.42	66.68	69.71
3	Assam	124.25	105.35	114.94	81.02	64.63	72.99
4	Bihar	94.51	61.46	78.56	41.38	22.04	32.36
5	Goa	71.44	63.96	67.59	77.03	67.36	72.20
6	Gujarat	124.54	101.43	113.38	71.81	57.31	64.89
7	Haryana	81.22	82.98	82.04	64.58	59.02	62.00
8	Himachal Pradesh	92.97	80.83	86.66	91.80	78.66	85.15
9	J & K.	92.55	64.78	78.47	79.54	49.18	64.60
10	Karnataka	112.83	105.87	109.39	70.71	60.49	65.67
11	Kerala	85.80	84.74	85.28	97.78	93.36	95.61
12	Madhya Pradesh	126.53	102.94	115.03	75.38	48.70	62.56
13	Maharashtra	115.80	112.32	114.10	96.72	80.37	88.80
14	Manipur	101.87	87.41	94.44	79.62	71.34	75.48
15	Meghalaya	119.46	111.64	115.43	57.42	62.28	59.83
16	Mizoram	121.84	107.52	114.62	78.77	76.17	77.47
17	Nagaland	92.21	87.78	90.03	58.67	61.14	59.85
18	Orissa	125.70	91.48	108.84	66.59	43.75	55.34
19	Punjab	79.91	81.71	80.75	64.53	64.95	64.73
20	Rajasthan	137.61	83.81	111.92	105.89	48.35	78.88
21	Sikkim	139.32	138.48	138.91	70.96	75.59	73.69
22	Tamil Nadu	102.75	98.62	100.73	88.56	85.16	86.89
23	Tripura	118.28	101.86	109.37	69.96	60.26	65.13
24	Uttar Pradesh	78.43	50.18	64.96	48.69	25.80	38.09
25	West Bengal	105.35	94.86	100.19	57.00	43.91	50.63
26	A. & N Islands	86.76	91.21	88.84	91.22	95.69	93.27
27	Chandigarh	66.30	65.40	65.88	68.06	71.88	69.79
28	D & N Haveli	153.43	106.59	128.90	77.28	48.30	62.79
29	Daman & Diu	119.16	93.99	105.73	92.60	81.20	86.90
30	Delhi	85.24	83.08	84.20	63.08	81.59	71.71
31	Lakshadweep	113.20	94.88	104.04	78.93	69.20	74.07
32	Pondicherry	88.66	79.41	83.96	96.96	86.06	91.43
	India	104.08	85.18	94.90	67.15	49.66	58.79

Source, Annual Report, 1999-2000, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

Table 6: Enrolment Ratio in Classes I-V and VI-VIII for Scheduled Caste Children in the age group 6-11 yrs. and 11-14 yrs. - 1999-2000

SL. No.	States / UTs.	Classes I-V (6 - 11 Yrs.)			Classes VI-VIII (11 - 14 Yrs.)		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	Andhra Pradesh	121.04	114.73	117.92	29.81	20.64	25.41
2	Arunachal Pradesh	22.95	28.66	25.33	18.58	25.58	21.47
3	Assam	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
4	Bihar	81.45	54.17	68.41	54.90	29.87	43.35
5	Goa	93.83	85.68	89.72	57.58	50.41	54.06
6	Gujarat	111.62	86.36	99.33	107.81	87.87	98.37
7	Haryana	84.76	87.43	86.01	68.41	57.73	63.51
8	Himachal Pradesh	84.79	75.91	80.35	79.97	70.58	75.31
9	J & K.	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
10	Karnataka	97.55	89.40	93.49	84.97	69.48	77.32
11	Kerala	87.76	84.18	86.00	100.29	94.92	97.65
12	Madhya Pradesh	130.98	104.44	118.06	95.45	56.59	77.13
13	Maharashtra	147.83	141.27	144.60	134.68	119.63	127.39
14	Manipur	92.24	91.58	91.90	78.10	60.48	69.17
15	Meghalaya	111.56	105.88	108.90	121.03	129.09	124.81
16	Mizoram	112.63	117.65	113.39	100.00	100.00	100.00
17	Nagaland	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
18	Orissa	139.82	90.00	115.07	68.15	42.78	55.55
19	Punjab	115.63	119.22	117.31	77.85	76.25	77.10
20	Rajasthan	113.08	51.30	83.69	126.45	45.64	88.86
21	Sikkim	136.44	103.27	118.81	69.27	57.10	63.06
22	Tamil Nadu	87.16	82.30	84.76	78.42	76.77	77.61
23	Tripura	114.30	104.96	109.61	86.73	73.64	80.22
24	Uttar Pradesh	88.57	53.62	72.08	56.57	22.35	40.73
25	West Bengal	112.88	85.84	99.48	60.32	42.02	51.25
26	A. & N Islands	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
27	Chandigarh	93.76	85.61	89.77	85.20	84.70	84.96
28	D & N Haveli	108.97	106.99	107.99	114.68	100.00	107.80
29	Daman & Diu	116.03	88.18	100.86	94.29	92.59	93.41
30	Delhi	93.43	81.55	87.63	63.06	79.80	71.12
31	Lakshadweep	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
32	Pondicherry	111.60	100.60	105.97	112.11	113.03	117.48
	India	103.57	80.53	92.41	73.57	50.33	62.49

Source, Annual Report 2000-2001, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

Table 7: Enrolment Ratio in Classes I-V and VI-VIII for Scheduled Tribe Children in the age group 6-11 yrs. and 11-14 yrs - 1999-2000

SL No	States / UTs	Classes I-V (6-11 Yrs)			Classes VI-VIII (11-14 Yrs)		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	Andhra Pradesh	143 65	119 85	131 94	20 61	10 21	15 65
2	Arunachal Pradesh	128 51	96 98	111 73	94 53	73 43	83.39
3	Assam	151 09	119 22	134 95	120 99	96 57	108 70
4	Bihar	82.33	54 19	68.45	54 93	29 88	42 99
5	Goa	140 00	125 00	132.65	93.75	71 43	83.33
6	Gujarat	112 86	92 68	102 81	67 60	51 77	59 93
7	Haryana	0 00	0 00	0.00	0 00	0 00	0 00
8	Himachal Pradesh	80 72	72 12	76.39	59 90	51.39	55.65
9	J & K	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00
10	Karnataka	88 42	73 51	80 99	110 53	85 58	98 21
11	Kerala	101 49	99 25	100 40	83 11	77 18	80.25
12	Madhya Pradesh	110 04	81.87	95 81	58 70	34 08	46 64
13	Maharashtra	133 47	115 91	124 71	81 77	64 43	73.26
14	Manipur	95 65	86 40	91 00	62 63	51 74	57 15
15	Meghalaya	90 15	84 87	87.42	54 57	63 00	58.93
16	Mizoram	124 42	100 95	112 08	78 47	67 92	72 90
17	Nagaland	4 46	4 00	4.23	2 89	2 68	2 79
18	Orissa	129 97	69 83	99 69	49.54	32 84	41 13
19	Punjab	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00
20	Rajasthan	114 07	49 14	82 63	128 73	43 28	88 26
21	Sikkim	124.38	106 94	115.23	62 98	59 33	61 14
22	Tamil Nadu	104 88	102 67	103 79	77 06	56 66	67 19
23	Tripura	112 48	91 45	101.82	62 81	48 14	55 46
24	Uttar Pradesh	120 99	84 74	103 52	113 07	58.67	87.32
25	West Bengal	93.34	80 22	86 72	79.34	39 56	59 27
26	A. & N. Islands	82.22	59 63	69 82	84 76	64.79	74.30
27	Chandigarh	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00
28	D & N Haveli	28 92	95 90	63 75	86 07	48 40	67.55
29	Daman & Diu	124 30	106 45	115 13	88 32	64 17	76.59
30	Delhi	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00	0.00
31	Lakshadweep	114 88	93 89	104 25	108 41	97.10	102 80
32	Pondicherry	0 00	0 00	0.00	0 00	0 00	0.00
	India	112 68	82 73	97 70	70 75	44 79	58 01

Source, Annual Report, 2000-2001, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

**Table - 8: Drop out Rates in Classes I-V for General Children
(1999-2000)***

SL.No	States / UTs	Classes I-V		Total
		Boys	Girls	
1	Andhra Pradesh	39.42	41.23	40.28
2	Arunachal Pradesh	49.77	50.81	50.23
3	Assam	25.85	42.20	33.69
4	Bihar	56.50	58.64	57.27
5	Goa	5.83	11.51	8.58
6	Gujarat	30.51	28.10	29.49
7	Haryana	16.09	12.78	14.57
8	Himachal Pradesh	36.63	33.90	35.35
9	J & K.	35.12	47.39	51.84
10	Karnataka	30.32	27.19	28.87
11	Kerala	- 9.03	- 5.00	- 7.05
12	Madhya Pradesh	16.02	22.97	19.03
13	Maharashtra	18.99	21.72	20.29
14	Manipur	43.66	42.90	43.30
15	Meghalaya	57.63	57.22	57.43
16	Mizoram	51.96	51.27	51.64
17	Nagaland	46.78	46.68	46.73
18	Orissa	27.87	44.38	36.12
19	Punjab	24.57	20.15	22.49
20	Rajasthan	46.00	62.68	52.53
21	Sikkim	61.27	56.35	58.94
22	Tamil Nadu	42.70	39.19	41.10
23	Tripura	49.66	49.25	49.47
24	Uttar Pradesh	53.11	62.16	56.64
25	West Bengal	49.85	58.48	54.07
26	A & N Islands	5.52	5.77	5.64
27	Chandigarh	- 67.15	- 66.17	- 66.70
28	D & N Haveli	23.69	41.29	31.53
29	Daman & Diu	0.76	6.60	3.59
30	Delhi	5.36	6.03	5.67
31	Lakshadweep	1.58	4.08	2.70
32	Pondicherry	- 6.44	- 6.19	- 6.32
	India	38.67	42.28	

Source, Annual Report, 2000 -2001 , Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

* Provisional figures

**Table 9 Drop out Rates in Classes I-VIII and I-X for General Children
(1999-2000)***

SL No	States / UTs.	Classes I-VIII			Classes I-X		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	Andhra Pradesh	64.32	69.06	66.52	76.53	77.67	77.02
2	Arunachal Pradesh	66.07	63.38	64.92	74.93	77.64	76.08
3	Assam	68.05	71.99	69.81	75.89	77.92	76.80
4	Bihar	75.75	80.96	77.62	81.32	87.42	83.46
5	Goa	7.14	13.27	10.12	43.22	42.42	42.83
6	Gujarat	57.46	65.37	60.99	70.60	74.87	72.52
7	Haryana	26.35	36.38	31.04	42.75	52.54	47.16
8	Himachal Pradesh	25.48	27.29	26.35	38.36	42.57	40.37
9	J & K.	32.48	44.99	37.61	61.89	71.22	65.80
10	Karnataka	59.82	65.35	62.47	68.53	69.36	68.92
11	Kerala	-7.33	-4.06	-5.73	29.10	18.17	23.74
12	Madhya Pradesh	41.01	55.23	47.15	62.21	76.41	68.38
13	Maharashtra	17.51	42.95	29.59	53.72	60.92	57.10
14	Manipur	42.92	43.25	43.08	76.56	75.48	76.06
15	Meghalaya	77.82	77.66	77.74	61.26	63.09	62.13
16	Mizoram	68.01	63.36	65.81	76.10	73.19	74.72
17	Nagaland	43.55	36.47	40.27	71.62	69.87	70.83
18	Orissa	63.32	62.05	62.81	72.93	71.90	72.52
19	Punjab	29.82	29.90	29.86	35.37	35.73	35.54
20	Rajasthan	38.76	56.09	44.89	79.27	83.73	80.74
21	Sikkim	73.11	67.12	70.33	88.57	87.47	88.06
22	Tamil Nadu	44.63	41.61	43.22	59.75	57.63	58.77
23	Tripura	67.94	68.58	68.24	78.06	79.30	78.63
24	Uttar Pradesh	50.37	57.94	53.01	55.48	72.92	61.56
25	West Bengal	70.04	71.99	70.88	79.01	85.45	82.06
26	A. & N Islands	32.54	34.25	33.37	45.53	44.21	44.90
27	Chandigarh	-3.06	-4.76	-3.88	18.24	5.96	12.60
28	D & N Haveli	53.85	61.53	57.04	75.22	79.21	76.97
29	Daman & Diu	2.06	4.13	3.06	42.29	46.66	44.30
30	Delhi	21.37	9.03	15.23	-35.19	-56.03	-45.46
31	Lakshadweep	24.79	25.06	24.92	45.42	43.77	44.65
32	Pondicherry	0.85	-0.33	0.29	43.27	38.99	41.23
	India	51.96	58.00	54.53	66.58	70.60	68.28

Source: Annual Report, 2000-2001, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

* Provisional figures

**Table 10 : Female Teachers as Percentage to Total Teachers at the School Stage
1999-2000***

SL No	States / UTs	Primary Stage			Middle Stage			Sec. / Hr Sec.		
		Total	Female	% Females	Total	Female	% Females	Total	Females	% Females
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Andhra Pradesh	136879	48090	35.13	69117	29870	43.22	151274	59666	39.44
2	Arunachal Pradesh	3229	991	30.69	2630	717	27.26	3458	746	21.57
3	Assam	87009	25976	29.85	57059	11621	20.37	65812	17390	26.42
4	Bihar*	115486	22158	19.19	99181	22625	22.81	45491	7033	15.46
5	Goa	2764	1920	69.46	678	429	63.27	7587	4408	58.10
6	Gujarat*	35040	17450	49.80	142200	69618	48.96	65131	15966	24.51
7	Haryana	48199	23915	49.62	8119	2723	33.54	55654	23755	42.68
8	Himachal Pradesh	27532	9660	35.09	6666	1660	24.90	19162	5964	31.12
9	J & K@	22113	8225	37.20	23362	8824	37.77	24022	7521	31.31
10	Karnataka*	60540	26408	43.62	142580	65823	46.17	84505	23839	28.21
11	Kerala	45599	32669	71.64	48500	32428	66.86	97452	64653	66.34
12	Madhya Pradesh	239414	68774	28.73	110843	33311	30.05	97446	29018	29.78
13	Maharashtra	165874	82355	49.65	181340	73163	40.35	251163	76341	30.40
14	Manipur	9412	3379	35.90	6730	2573	38.23	10733	4131	38.49
15	Meghalaya	10978	5158	46.98	4743	1894	39.93	5602	2785	49.71
16	Mizoram	4882	2360	48.34	4962	1210	24.39	3084	712	23.09
17	Nagaland	6847	2794	40.81	4919	2017	41.00	6344	2868	45.21
18	Orissa	111040	27508	24.77	38914	5724	14.71	61129	13173	21.55
19	Punjab	45907	29002	63.18	15584	8023	51.48	64017	34221	53.46
20	Rajasthan	94812	26538	27.99	118650	30238	25.49	93626	25648	27.39
21	Sikkim	3482	1583	45.46	1701	621	36.51	2588	911	35.20
22	Tamil Nadu	120484	69565	57.74	58395	24662	42.23	143820	46142	32.08
23	Tripura	13831	5428	39.25	8911	1962	22.27	18007	5553	30.84
24	Uttar Pradesh	318992	82261	25.79	106688	23890	22.39	141333	26838	18.99
25	West Bengal	150546	35147	23.35	23346	5751	24.63	126342	33242	26.31
26	A. & N. Islands	854	428	50.12	724	357	49.31	2671	1316	49.27
27	Chandigarh	520	507	97.50	558	497	89.07	4910	3905	79.53
28	D. & N. Haveli	210	66	31.43	440	252	57.27	207	85	41.06
29	Daman & Diu	347	209	60.23	181	68	37.57	292	107	36.64
30	Delhi*	34056	21657	63.59	8710	5675	65.15	62444	37659	60.31
31	Lakshadweep	245	112	45.71	94	43	45.74	300	72	24.00
32	Pondicherry	2217	1320	59.54	1380	744	53.91	4824	2524	52.32
	India	1919340	683613	35.62	1297805	469013	36.14	1720430	578192	33.61

Source Annual Report 2000-2001, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI.

Note

- Provisional figures
- Pertains to 1998-99 except Gujarat High/Hr Sec. Schools
- @ Pertains to 1997-98

Table II
Enrolment at the Primary/Junior Basic stage

Sl No	States/UTs	1980-81			1990-91			1998-99		
		Total	Girls	%Girls	Total	Girls	%Girls	Total	Girls	%Girls
1	Andhra Pradesh	4234299	1763451	41.65	7536578	3234834	42.92	8797662	4222435	47.99
2	Arunachal Pradesh	44791	15188	33.91	112197	47154	42.03	152021	69103	45.48
3	Assam	1751125	753963	43.06	3550085	1656888	46.67	3827015	1719815	44.94
4	Bihar	4652543	1413885	30.39	8565263	2841810	33.18	10473252	3956475	37.78
5	Goa	85456 *	38935 *	22.20	135856	64373	47.38	126161	60775	48.17
6	Gujarat	991265	398460	40.20	5680000	2458000	43.27	6146281	2656553	43.22
7	Haryana	608558	221090	36.33	1689407	734917	43.50	2092162	985913	47.12
8	Himachal Pradesh	554379	240881	43.45	690225	319123	46.23	694412	342556	49.33
9	Jammu & Kashmir	292193	114693	39.25	738760	288386	38.04	893005	373809	41.86
10	Karnataka	1534400	703643	45.86	5682232	2617318	46.06	6501200	3106290	47.78
11	Kerala	1725765	844008	48.91	3155876	1532817	48.57	2660385	1292849	48.60
12	Madhya Pradesh	4628097	1531889	33.10	7994489	3131075	39.17	10772999	4658794	43.25
13	Maharashtra	4149778	1813631	43.70	1002204	4624412	46.14	11896099	5711305	48.01
14	Manipur	164594	71961	43.72	264589	121074	45.78	256670	119440	46.53
15	Meghalaya	190026	90713	47.74	242570	118177	48.72	313978	156676	49.90
16	Mizoram	77476	37082	47.86	120300	57117	47.48	134770	63901	47.41
17	Nagaland	117466	51331	43.70	145410	66600	45.80	205286	99136	48.29
18	Orissa	2823456	1111321	39.36	360000	144600	40.87	4080000	1689000	41.40
19	Punjab	1860870	836324	44.94	2055755	947026	46.07	2168072	1034374	47.71
20	Rajasthan	2075203	483204	23.28	4513247	1371810	30.40	7204000	2546000	35.34
21	Sikkim	24863	10193	41.00	72498	33625	46.38	83075	39050	47.01
22	Tamil Nadu	4472724	2022597	45.22	7763873	3581414	46.13	6669704	3226939	48.38
23	Tripura	230747	99615	43.17	402304	181220	45.05	452421	206641	45.67
24	Uttar Pradesh	9859587	2966544	30.09	1394000	5050215	36.23	13855668	5108954	36.87
25	West Bengal	6497856	2662825	40.98	9274121	3960689	42.71	8948677	4076623	45.56
26	Union Territories									
26	A & N Islands	15273	7026	46.00	39812	18770	47.15	40150	19245	47.93
27	Chandigarh	4179	1869	44.72	49630	23248	46.84	63713	30654	48.11
28	D & N Haveli	7237	2710	37.45	16612	6791	40.88	25442	10967	43.11
29	Daman & Diu	-	-	-	9779	4787	48.95	15243	7315	47.99
30	Delhi	594633	275304	46.30	920833	429868	46.68	1324426	630556	47.61
31	Lakshadweep	4541	1867	41.11	8348	3830	45.88	8367	3822	45.68
32	Pondicherry	39474	17883	45.30	105630	50236	47.58	103561	49853	48.14
	India	5431386	2060408	37.94	9911832	41023604	41.39	11098587	4827581	43.50
		3	6		0			7	8	

Note * Including Daman & Diu

Source - Education in India 1981-82 & Selected Educational Statistics, 1990-91, 1998-99,
Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

Table 12
Enrolment at the Middle/Senior Basic Stage

Sl No	States/UTs	1980-81			1990-91			1998-99		
		Total	Girls	%Girls	Total	Girls	%Girls	Total	Girls	%Girls
1	Andhra Pradesh	1418238	542419	38.25	2124093	780407	36.74	2525465	1090674	43.19
2	Arunachal Pradesh	16852	5460	32.40	26089	10133	38.84	48664	22067	45.36
3	Assam	600662	240130	39.98	1076197	435770	40.49	1205843	504809	41.86
4	Bihar	3050726	870370	28.53	2120576	560989	26.45	2548580	808939	31.74
5	Goa	36218 *	17334 *	47.86	80913	37449	46.28	76186	35561	46.68
6	Gujarat	4232503	1716249	40.55	1888000	750000	39.72	2153850	907165	42.12
7	Haryana	311372	99075	31.82	690815	251214	36.36	925635	405031	43.76
8	Himachal Pradesh	85892	28808	33.54	334798	146131	43.65	351473	167408	47.63
9	Jammu & Kashmir	286990	91624	31.93	291738	100860	34.57	405698	151966	37.48
10	Karnataka	3639221	1556132	42.76	1713866	697952	40.72	2417210	1098520	45.45
11	Kerala	1609525	770191	47.85	1869660	908127	48.57	1812103	874623	48.27
12	Madhya Pradesh	1628326	427648	26.26	2653900	889261	33.51	3476476	1274271	36.65
13	Maharashtra	4523828	1935179	42.78	3894644	1602467	41.15	5264193	2440362	46.36
14	Manipur	52946	22819	43.10	78700	36360	46.20	113020	52720	46.65
15	Meghalaya	37088	17214	46.41	69360	32451	46.79	89207	45905	51.46
16	Mizoram	26119	11881	45.49	39077	19509	49.92	46114	22585	48.98
17	Nagaland	41109	17926	43.61	55521	26904	48.46	67003	32866	49.05
18	Orissa	625391	208138	33.28	975800	427300	43.79	1296000	466000	35.96
19	Punjab	157814	62688	39.72	852440	364470	42.76	1022509	470084	45.97
20	Rajasthan	1305358	317088	24.29	1318734	285398	21.64	2314000	631000	27.27
21	Sikkim	10306	3959	38.41	14814	7038	47.51	26115	13124	50.25
22	Tamil Nadu	2540055	1115632	43.92	3158547	1344281	42.56	3593865	1663823	46.30
23	Tripura	87089	37651	43.23	121466	52502	43.22	142978	64305	44.98
24	Uttar Pradesh	1930520	437784	22.68	4470010	1229582	27.51	4824960	1515139	31.40
25	West Bengal	603595	242921	40.25	2742767	1164672	42.46	2843016	1189844	41.85
Union Territories										
26	A & N Islands	12721	5733	45.07	17908	8022	44.80	22891	10737	46.90
27	Chandigarh	10591	4311	40.70	25946	12362	47.65	34359	16584	48.27
28	D & N Haveli	8567	3411	39.82	4418	1598	36.17	6923	2648	38.25
29	Daman & Diu	-	-	-	7501	3438	45.83	6810	3166	46.49
30	Delhi	105581	40977	38.81	505700	225354	44.56	623135	330423	53.03
31	Lakshadweep	2066	1350	65.34	3152	1409	44.70	4660	2116	45.41
32	Pondicherry	44424	19265	43.37	53849	25298	45.30	64417	30561	47.44
	India	2904169	10869367	37.43	3328299	1243870	37.37	4035335	1634502	40.50
		3			9	8		8	6	

Note * Including Daman & Diu

Source - Education in India 1981-82 & Selected Educational Statistics, 1990-91, 1998-99,
Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

Table 13
Enrolment at the High / Post-Basic Stage

Sl No	States/UTs	1980-81			1990-91			1998-99		
		Total	Girls	%Girls	Total	Girls	%Girls	Total	Girls	%Girls
1	Andhra Pradesh	1643426	598296	36.41	974575	348745	35.78	1087539	447586	41.16
2	Arunachal Pradesh	11313	3899	34.46	10771	3717	34.61	19655	7966	40.53
3	Assam	517822	203127	39.23	405728	176752	43.58	555761	245911	44.25
4	Bihar	1226339	223175	18.20	878105	182887	20.83	1092237	298018	27.29
5	Goa	134721 *	60339 *	44.79	41000	18769	45.78	38693	18492	47.79
6	Gujarat	362732	120548	33.23	801000	301000	37.58	989346	398227	40.25
7	Haryana	973973	280852	28.84	292706	92441	31.58	426134	170485	40.01
8	Himachal Pradesh	173238	53939	31.14	186493	75697	40.60	183441	85276	46.49
9	Jammu & Kashmir	228058	75772	33.22	108583	37000	34.08	164969	60082	36.42
10	Karnataka	546013	129520	23.72	779365	286616	36.78	979615	440362	44.95
11	Kerala	2315508	1122848	48.48	928167	468474	50.47	1024592	524604	51.20
12	Madhya Pradesh	--	--	--	711828	168855	23.72	1298490	418348	32.22
13	Maharashtra	2626845	948284	36.10	1786196	650167	36.40	2286731	941167	41.16
14	Manipur	75420	31680	42.00	46700	19827	42.46	60800	28350	46.63
15	Meghalaya	54321	25817	47.53	47633	22041	46.27	32305	15454	47.84
16	Mizoram	18688	8368	44.78	16229	7940	48.92	22936	11465	49.99
17	Nagaland	38022	15622	41.09	20863	9450	45.30	27691	12953	46.78
18	Orissa	384491	110674	28.78	777000	270000	34.75	1031000	418000	40.54
19	Punjab	755745	307990	40.75	435559	180094	41.35	537073	241405	44.95
20	Rajasthan	549693	111028	20.20	571642	107529	18.81	810788	213202	26.30
21	Sikkim	14449	5693	39.40	6653	2929	44.03	6815	3196	46.90
22	Tamil Nadu	794569	318969	40.14	1157735	449505	38.83	1547904	715727	46.24
23	Tripura	60375	24664	40.85	50024	20775	41.53	63724	26967	42.32
24	Uttar Pradesh	1000727	210102	20.99	2036108	440647	21.64	2328183	568780	24.43
25	West Bengal	1863407	744928	39.98	1174200	392927	33.46	985119	298262	30.28
Union Territories										
26	A & N Islands	6389	2798	43.79	8193	3774	46.06	11786	5671	48.12
27	Chandigarh	24271	10371	42.73	15409	7413	48.11	17655	8784	49.75
28	D & N Haveli	403	127	31.51	1672	614	36.72	2432	996	40.95
29	Daman & Diu	-	-	-	5106	2096	41.05	3217	1419	44.11
30	Delhi	-	-	-	243472	103635	42.57	781023	410651	52.58
31	Lakshadweep	4290	1424	33.19	1245	470	37.75	2100	987	47.00
32	Pondicherry	34613	14405	41.62	19502	8806	45.16	32119	15398	47.94
	India	1643986	5765259	35.07	1453948	4861604	33.44	1845185	7054191	38.23
		1			2			5		

Note - * Including Daman & Diu

Source - Education in India 1981-82 & Selected Educational Statistics, 1990-91, 1998-99,
Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

Table 14
Enrolment at the Higher Secondary Stages

(1) S/N	(2) States/UTs	Higher Secondary Stages								
		(3) Total	1980-81 (4) Girl	(5) %Girl	1990-91 (6) Total	(7) Girl	(8) %Girl	1998-99 (9) Total	(10) Girl	(11) %Girl
0										
1	Andhra Pradesh	46848	17641	37.68	408976	117631	28.90	762525	270907	35.53
2	Arunachal Pradesh	13016	4154	31.91	4925	1291	26.21	7681	2745	35.74
3	Assam	122616	29943	24.42	199043	58706	29.49	297839	111100	37.30
4	Bihar	22124	8108	36.65	418607	89865	21.47	400550	85269	21.28
5	Goa	1925 *	727 *	37.77 *	18025	8042	44.62	23747	11854	49.92
6	Gujarat	738228	258420	35.01	328000	127000	38.72	387491	173766	44.84
7	Haryana	111360	32058	28.79	117304	33663	28.70	232949	89455	38.40
8	Himachal Pradesh	48429	17367	35.86	99890	29481	29.51	94676	38955	41.15
9	Jammu & Kashmir	59058	21353	36.16	72730	21410	29.44	62736	23267	37.09
10	Karnataka	297620	74147	24.92	336864	81248	24.12	640472	384899	42.00
11	Kerala	34836	15377	44.14	233980	120592	51.54	256903	135638	52.80
12	Madhya Pradesh	920841	238404	25.87	295001	79805	27.05	813523	262926	32.32
13	Maharashtra	884870	279439	31.23	1233459	401416	32.54	665305	442319	66.48
14	Manipur	6579	2707	41.15	21880	9210	42.09	10730	4430	41.29
15	Meghalaya	-	-	-	10871	5128	46.72	17743	8210	46.27
16	Mizoram	474	220	46.41	5378	2227	41.41	6174	2798	45.32
17	Nagaland	-	-	-	3752	1524	40.62	13046	5545	42.50
18	Orissa	20250	2195	10.84	151201	43215	28.58	456600	133500	29.24
19	Punjab	237989	88181	37.05	178760	71521	40.01	239843	101316	42.24
20	Rajasthan	397073	87834	22.12	223530	45360	20.29	401380	107099	26.68
21	Sikkim	6882	2634	38.28	2059	887	43.12	3789	1669	44.05
22	Tamil Nadu	1567687	581458	37.09	478552	198633	41.51	714351	289311	40.50
23	Tripura	58709	23441	39.93	15796	5248	33.22	23546	8760	37.20
24	Uttar Pradesh	2707560	581576	21.47	927892	257353	27.74	948266	302652	31.98
25	West Bengal *	1420024	187617	13.21	424416	147173	34.68	584424	131711	22.54
Union Territories										
26	A & N Islands	10778	4811	44.68	15469	6333	40.94	4154	1909	45.96
27	Chandigarh	12940	5610	43.35	14299	6087	42.57	15234	8128	53.35
28	D & N Haveli	1212	409	33.75	759	291	38.34	761	317	41.66
29	Daman & Diu	-	-	-	1189	408	34.31	1396	533	38.18
30	Delhi	653629	290328	44.42	142819	66933	46.87	531687	289417	54.43
31	Lakshadweep	432	119	27.55	590	290	49.15	686	270	39.36
32	Pondicherry	20306	7509	36.98	322304	149240	46.30	13885	6918	50.55
	India	1043398	2839785	27.22	6886400	217697	32.66	9315594	344769	37.01
		5				7			8	

Note * Including Daman & Diu
Including Higher Secondary (Old Pattern, 10+2 Pattern, Academic and Vocational, School With Vocational Stream) and Intermediate/Pre degree/Junior College (Old Pattern)

Source - Education in India 1981-82 & Selected Educational Statistics, 1990-91, 1998-99
Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

